The NATIONAL GEOGRAPHIC MAGAZINE

Vol. XVI JULY, 1905 No. 7

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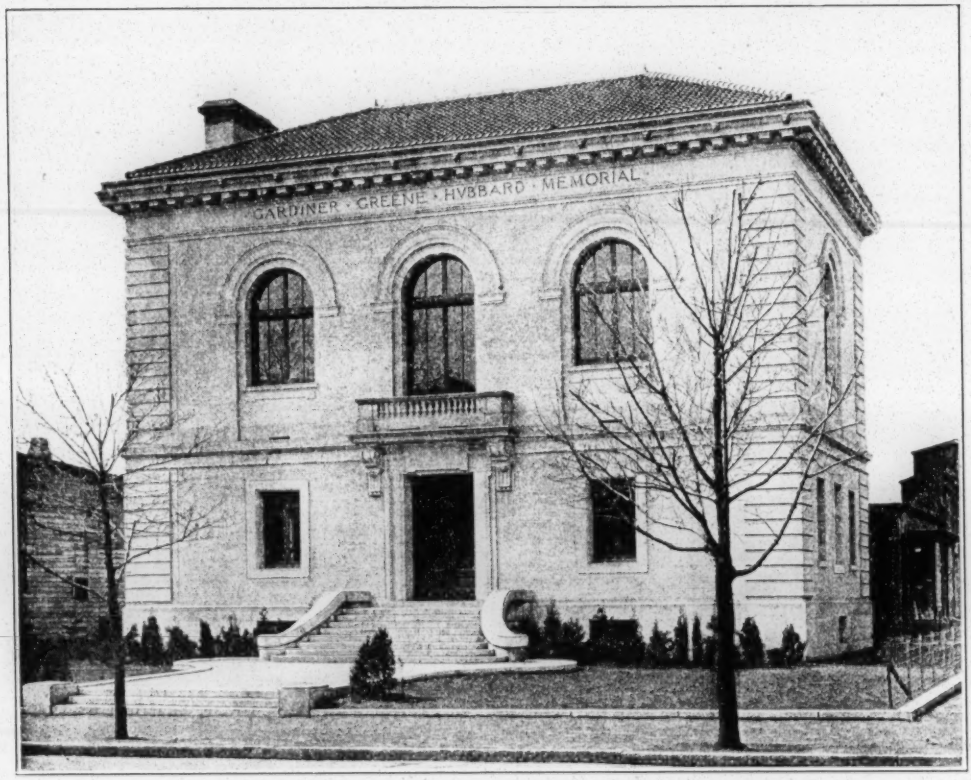

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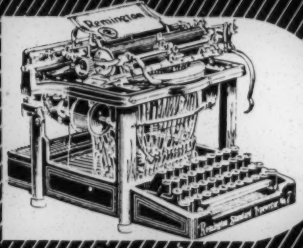

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VOL. XVI, No. 7 WASHINGTON JULY, 1905

THE NATIONAL GEOGRAPHIC MAGAZINE

EVOLUTION OF RUSSIAN GOVERNMENT*

BY EDWIN A. GROSVENOR, LL.D.,

PROFESSOR OF MODERN GOVERNMENT AND INTERNATIONAL LAW IN AMHERST COLLEGE

COUNTLESS questions arise at the very mention of the name of Russia. Many of these questions are of vital interest and interwoven with the crisis in the Far East. Nevertheless, I shall endeavor to push all other issues aside and devote myself entirely to the single subject—The Evolution of Russian Government.

At the beginning I am confronted by one peculiar difficulty. It is that I am an American and that the great majority of my hearers are of the same nationality. I know, indeed, that in no other country under the sun is there so large an acquaintance with foreign matters as in the United States. In no other is there so large an ability to judge of foreign questions, of their causes and ultimate solution. But this advantage is more than counterbalanced by the difficulty created in our minds through the rapid progress of our political life. We have not yet attained, nor are we altogether perfect. Sometimes things are done in this our boasted country which cause us shame. Nevertheless, we have represented during the last 125 years the foremost constitutional, self-governing experiment of mankind. Only a little more than a century ago did our fathers draw up that Constitution which is still our organic law. There did not then exist a single other written constitution, defining civil functions and regulating the relations of different departments of state. We were the first who ever embarked upon the sea of national self-government under the ægis of a constitution formed by the people. Hence it is difficult or impossible for us Americans to fully realize how rapidly we have advanced under the guidance of a brief but an enlightened experience. The rapidity with which we have rushed forward since astounds the beholder, but is barely perceived by ourselves. For we are in the very midst of the progress, and meanwhile receive and share all that is being achieved. The fleet-footed are not tolerant of the slow. Scant patience have we for the tardier progress made by nations in less favorable conditions than our own. The same step

*An address to the National Geographic Society, February 3, 1905.

must they keep and push on with the same tireless speed. Great Britain, surrounded by the inviolate sea, and safe from even the threat of a hostile foot, has wrought out farther than any other people, perhaps farther than ourselves, the application of principles to civil and constitutional government. But her as yet unwritten, unformulated constitution has had a thousand years for its making.

The nations move on like troops of soldiers in a long and weary march Some reach the place of bivouac and light the camp-fires while others are straggling far behind. Some of the seeming loiterers have been pressing on all the time toward the bivouac as the rear guard, with their faces to the foe ; and others are struggling forward, wounded and disabled, with slow and uncertain step ; and others still, because of less ability, of less forceful energy, but with just as strong determination and just as good a will, find themselves, when night approaches and time for halt has come, far from the bivouac and the front. Around one nation gleam the watch-fires of the twentieth century; another is fifty years behind ; a third is groping still among the breaking shadows of the eighteenth century, and yet another has only of late emerged from the darkness of the middle ages.

RUSSIA LEFT THE MIDDLE AGES IN 1689, 240 YEARS AFTER THE REST OF EUROPE HAD EMERGED FROM THAT DARK PERIOD

To the close of the middle ages in western and southern Europe are assigned different dates. There modern times began four or five hundred years ago, perhaps when Constantinople fell or when Luther and Raphael were born or when America was discovered. Then universal disorder ceased ; centralized states stood forth ; the various peoples felt new thrills of national life. With the ascent of the boy, Peter, to the throne the middle ages were ended in Russia. That was in 1689. Thus in the onward progress the inhabitant of other parts of Europe had by two hundred and fifty years the start of the Russian.

THE INFLUENCE OF THE PLAIN

The Russian had been left thus far in the rear by no fault of his own. In natural endowment the Slav is not inferior to the Latin or the Teuton or the Celt. Geographic conditions and geographic environment determined Russian history and molded Russian nature. In that enormous plain, which constitutes the Russia of today, mountains, at once a bulwark and defense and inspiration, were denied him. The Scotch, the Swiss, like the Vaudois Christian, could sing :

> "For the strength of the hills we bless Thee,
> Oh ! God, our father's God ;
> Thou hast made thy children mighty
> By the touch of the mountain sod."

But the dwellers of the plain, exposed to attack from every side in a wild and lawless age, had no other destiny than to suffer and endure.

After the barbaric invasions ceased in western Europe, for generations countless Asiatic hosts roamed over Russia, sparsely populated and difficult of defense, and devastated the land at will. Moreover, the sunless forest and dreary steppe wrought upon human nature their repressive influence. Physical conditions fashion character as the sculptor shapes the clay. Thence were developed those traits of sluggish patience, of long endurance, of morbid self-sacrifice which distinctly mark the Russian people today.

ADVANCES BEGIN AT THE TOP AND WORK DOWNWARD

In most countries each political or economic advance has derived its first impulse from popular feeling which swelled into a resistless demand upon authority—that is, the progress has begun from below and worked upward.

In Russia the very opposite is true. There almost every advance has received its first impulse from the Tsar—that is, the progress has begun from above and worked downward. Thus, for example, were brought about the emancipation of the serfs and the institution of the zemtsvos. Peter the Great was the typical Russian Tsar, though built on the most majestic and colossal scale. He forced his reforms upon an indifferent or unwilling people. While many Russians are, from one point of view, enlightened and others are crudely educated and correspondingly radical, the fact remains that to any proposed change the masses block the way; nor is it strange that the reforms in other lands extorted from the rulers by the people are in Russia, if they exist at all, forced upon the ruled by the ruler. No other process is possible among a people conservative by instinct and tolerant only of autocracy.*

THE PECULIAR ATTITUDE OF THE RUSSIANS TO THEIR TSAR

In May, 1896, as magnificent a panorama as Europe has beheld was presented at the city of Moscow. I leave to poets and word-painters the description of the scene. It was the coronation of the Tsar. Its significance for us is found not in its attendant splendor, but in its enunciation throughout of the fundamental principle of Russian government. Though the gorgeous rites continued for hours, the culmination of each ceremony, whether prayer or promise or benediction, was always some fresh assertion or acknowledgment of autocracy. The Metropolitan of Moscow, having bestowed the orb and scepter on the new sovereign, concluded his prayer of consecration with the words, "The Lord . . . preserve with His protection the established rule." In the profound silence the kneeling Tsar exclaimed, "Lord God of my fathers, Thou hast elected me to be ruler of this Thy people." Last act of all, the Metropolitan of St Petersburg announced, "God hath crowned this God-given, God-adorned, most God-fearing autocrat . . . Emperor of all the Russias." And then, turning to the Tsar, he said, "Take thyself the scepter and orb of the Empire, the visible image of the sole sovereignty over the people given by the Most High for their government, promotion, and every desirable well-being." The Tsar took no oath of obligation like that so many times repeated from the steps of our National Capitol. He made no promise. He simply accepted the burden placed upon his shoulders. That burden is "sole sovereignty over the people."

He personifies the theory of the father who never grows old and never dies, and whose national family is made up of children who never reach maturity and are always young. A few weeks ago at Tsarkoe Selo the Tsar received the deputation of workmen. As they talked of him in the vestibule the only name by which they called him was "The Little Father." They were grizzly veterans of labor, horny-handed by years of toil, and he a stripling, but to them the little father. When ushered into his presence, the first words they heard from his lips were "My children." Despite the difference in years, they were children around their father's feet.

That is the attitude of the Russian Slavs toward their autocratic head. Such an idea of governmental paternalism is absolutely contrary to our own, nor can it be appreciated or credited except as one acknowledges the essen-

* The Tsar's proclamation of religious freedom and equality, issued on April 30 and received with enthusiasm by the European and American world, is probably most unwelcome to the great majority of his subjects. It seems almost irony that this noble message of religious progress will especially benefit the Rascolniki, or Old Believers, the dissenters or sect reactionary even for Russia and bitterly hostile to all western influence and to all attendant progress.

tial difference of race accentuated by history and environment. When discussing the French we are talking about a Celto-Latin race ; when the Germans, a Teutonic race; when the United States of America, a cosmopolitan race, a mingling of all the peoples ; when the Russians, a Slavic race, a stock distinct from every other European race. From its very cradle, through the more than thousand years since, the Russian branch of the Slavic race is, in whatever pertains to government, the direct antithesis of our own. It is as difficult for the average Russian to appreciate our modern, twentieth-century sentiment as it is for us to appreciate their docile, submissive sentiment, which has been wrought out in the interminable forest and steppe.

THE TSAR AS THE POLITICAL HEAD

So the Tsar is the all-controlling, all-comprehending political unit. He is the legislative, the executive, the judicial. His authority extends over 8,500,000 square miles and 150,000,000 people. He cannot know the needs of all nor can he reach in relief to all. Consequently he summons to his service advisory boards, on whose intelligence and loyalty he must depend. There is the Ruling Senate — Pravitelstvuyushchiy Senat—established in 1710 by Peter the Great. It is divided into six sections, each presided over by a lawyer of eminence, who represents the Tsar. The sections are at once courts of justice and examining boards. In behalf of the Tsar the Senate promulgates the laws. There is the Council of State, purely consultative, organized in 1801 by Alexander I and reorganized on broader lines four years ago. It examines proposed laws and discusses the budget. It is divided into four departments, devoted respectively to legislation, to civil and ecclesiastical administration, to economy and industry, and to commerce and sciences. There is the Committee of Ministers, varying, like the Cabinet of Great Britain, in number and office, and, moreover, including several high functionaries and Grand Dukes. There is the Holy Synod, which superintends the religious affairs. The great metropolitans and bishops compose it, but its decisions have force only as approved by the Tsar and are issued in his name. There are several so-called cabinets, mainly philanthropic or economic. There are the 78 governors general, one over each province of the Empire, and 792 administrative councils, one for each provincial district. The members of all these different Imperial boards, of whatever name or dignity, are responsible to the Tsar.

THE VILLAGE MIR

The Tsar may be called the infinite unit. In Russia there is another or an atomic unit, just as real, but in comparison infinitely small. This is the mir. None the less *mir* is the most important word in the Russian language. It means the village and the village assembly. To the mind of the peasant it means the world. European Russia is made up of 107,676 communes or villages. Each is and has its mir. As in national affairs the Tsar decides or acts through his senate or council or synod, so in local affairs the mir acts for him. Apart from affairs of state, in the mir the peasant has a political existence of his own. Over the mir, in much akin to the town meeting of New England, presides the starosta, elected by it. Several communes united compose a volost or canton, of which there are 10,530 in European Russia. To the cantonal and provisional assemblies, each composed of duly elected delegates, is applied the name, of late become so familiar, of the zemtsvo. The mir or volost decides all questions of local nature, such as concern roads, schools, health, justice, and acts as a peasants' court in cases not involving more than 60 dollars. But

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The Tsar and Tsarina at Home

over every act or meeting impends the shadow of the Tsar. His delegate or commissioner is always near and may, though he seldom does, reverse all the proceedings. Thus autocracy stands forth alike in the lowly mir or in the Imperial Senate. Not far astray is the Slavic proverb, "In Russia two are everywhere, God and the Tsar."

This system is not the result of usurpation by violence or fraud. The process of its evolution and corresponding sanction is to be read on every page of Russian history.

THE EARLY RULERS OF RUSSIA—THE RURIKS

The first articulate cry of Russia was a prayer for a ruler. The Russian Nestor tells the story. In 862, one thousand and forty-three years ago, in their first assembly, the Russians said, "Let

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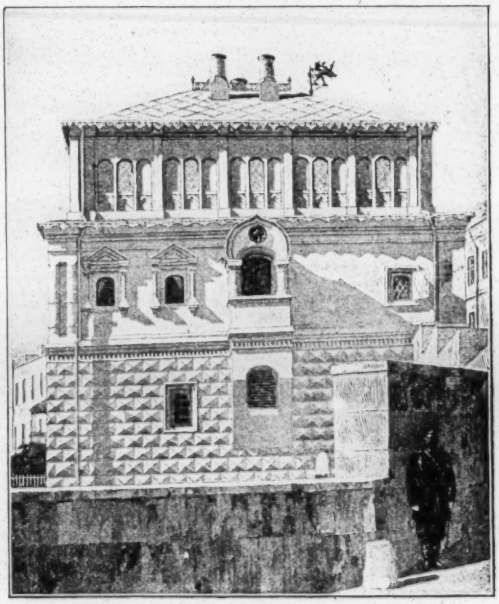
Latest Picture of the Tsar of all the Russias and His Interesting Family, including Baby Tsarevitch

us search for a prince who will govern us." They decided on a foreigner, the Norman Rurik. To him and to his brothers they sent messengers to say, "Our country is large and abundant, but order and justice are lacking. Come and take possession of it and rule over us." It would be difficult to recall a similar instance in any other country. Rurik vouchsafed a favorable reply, and founded the first Russian dynasty.

A hundred years later the sovereign, Wladimir, then a pagan, became a Christian. At Kief he ordered his subjects to assemble on the banks of the River Dnieper and be baptized. They joyfully obeyed. "If baptism were not good," said they, "our prince and our boyars would not have submitted to it."

The common formula of a royal order was, until the time of Russia's subjugation by the Tatars, "This is my will, and hence the law. Hear and obey."

From 1205 to 1472 the country groaned under the merciless sway of the Mongol Tatars. Resistance was of no avail against the overwhelming numbers of the invading horde. The period is fitly called in Russian history "The Age of Tears" or "The Age of Woe." No other country of Europe has ever been subjected to such horrible and long-continued suffering. The only alleviation to the awful distress was found in the efforts of the royal Russian family—itself tributary and a vassal, always weak, but determined and shrewd—to modify the ferocity of the conquerors and to keep the sense of nationality from dying. Upon their princes, fellow-sufferers with them in a common and intolerable subjection, the people looked as their only hope. When at last Prince Demetrius of the Don won a decisive victory over the horde and made it evident that its final expulsion was only the work of patience and time, the delirious gratitude of the people knew no bounds. They were ready to swear themselves the subjects of Demetrius



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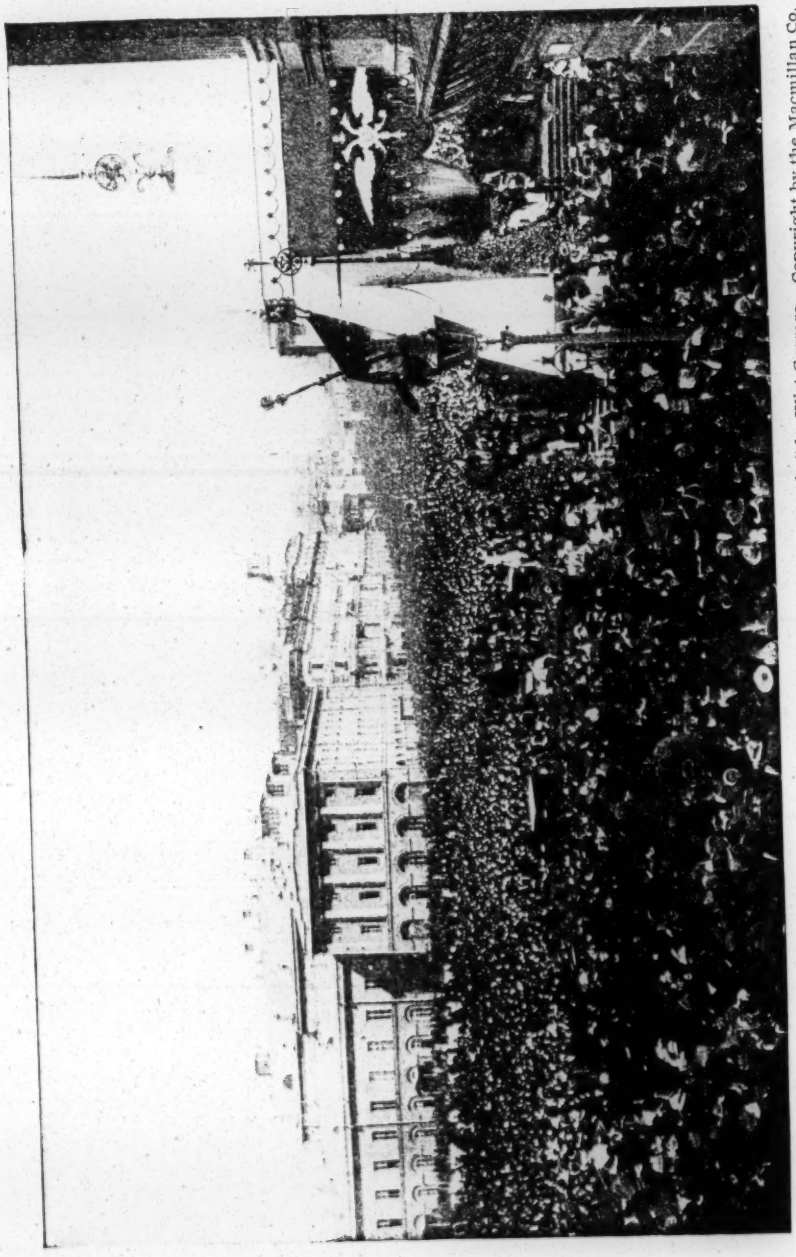
Home of Romanoffs, Moscow

and his heirs forever. The city from which the deliverance had proceeded was henceforth "Holy Mother Moscow." Autocracy, by its immense services, had enshrined itself in the Russian heart. Gradually the broken horde was pressed back to the waste lands which stretch along the Azoff and the Caspian, nor is it strange if subjection through 273 hideous years to inhuman Asiatic masters left traces, hard to eradicate, upon Russian character.

From 1462 to 1584 three princes occupied the throne—Ivan III the Great, Wassili, and Ivan IV the Terrible, or, more accurately rendering the Russian adjective, Ivan the Awful. Ruthless, sometimes monstrous, but always mighty, always persistent in one purpose, these three built up Russia from its humiliation and weakness into glory and strength. Before Ivan IV, the marvelous madman, died he had made him-



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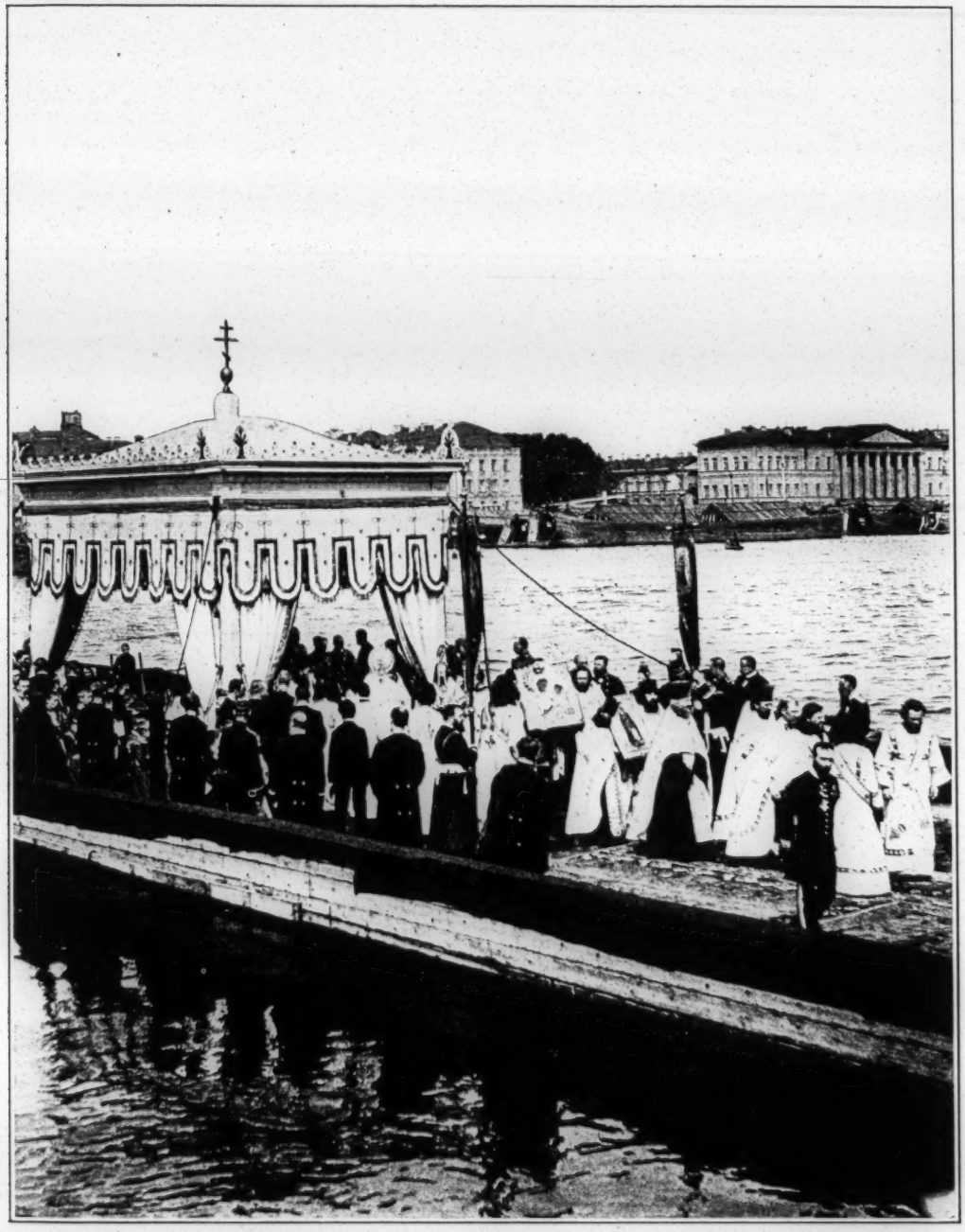
A Crowd in Theater Square, Moscow



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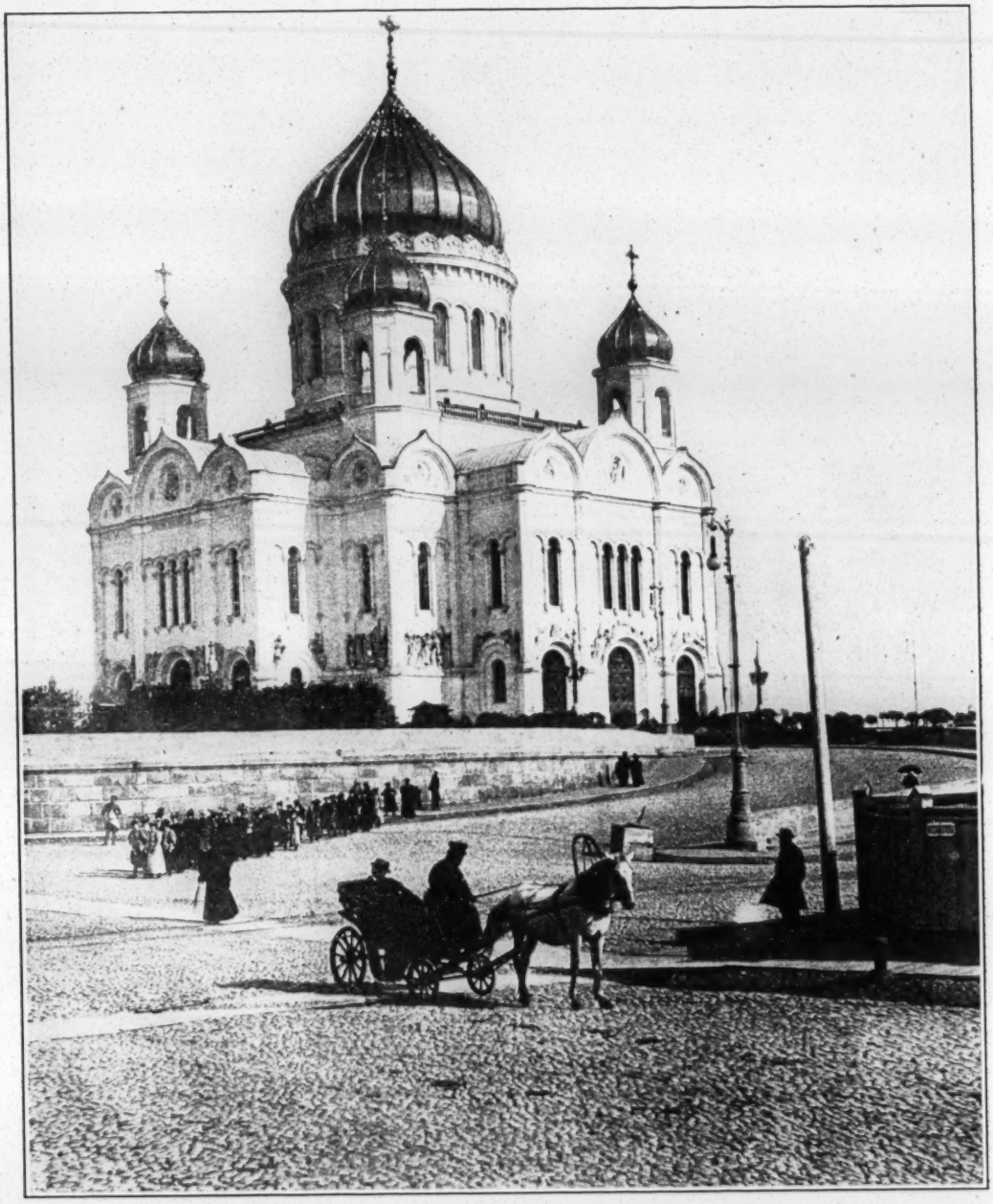
Priests of the Orthodox Greek Church on a Float upon the Neva River, St Petersburg

Blessing the waters to make them safe for drinking. The ikons or sacred pictures are indsipensable to this ceremony



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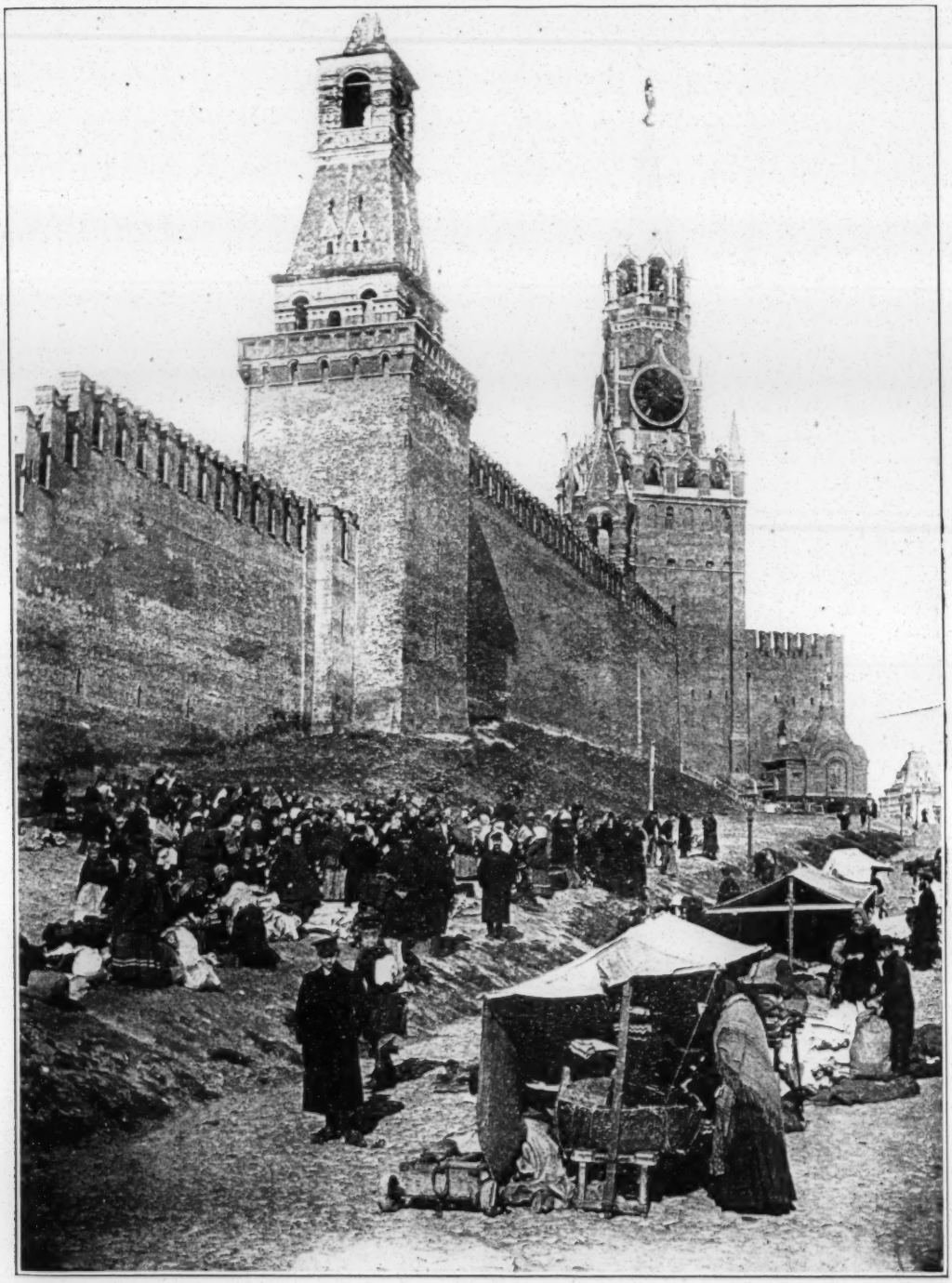
Splendid Temple of Our Saviour in a Western District of Moscow

Built to commemorate the disastrous failure of Napoleon's attempt to conquer the Czar's empire. Seven thousand people attend mass at one time under the dome, which is covered with pure gold. The gilding of the five domes alone cost nearly a million dollars. The procession is a party of school girls coming from the church guarded by a vigilant chaperone.



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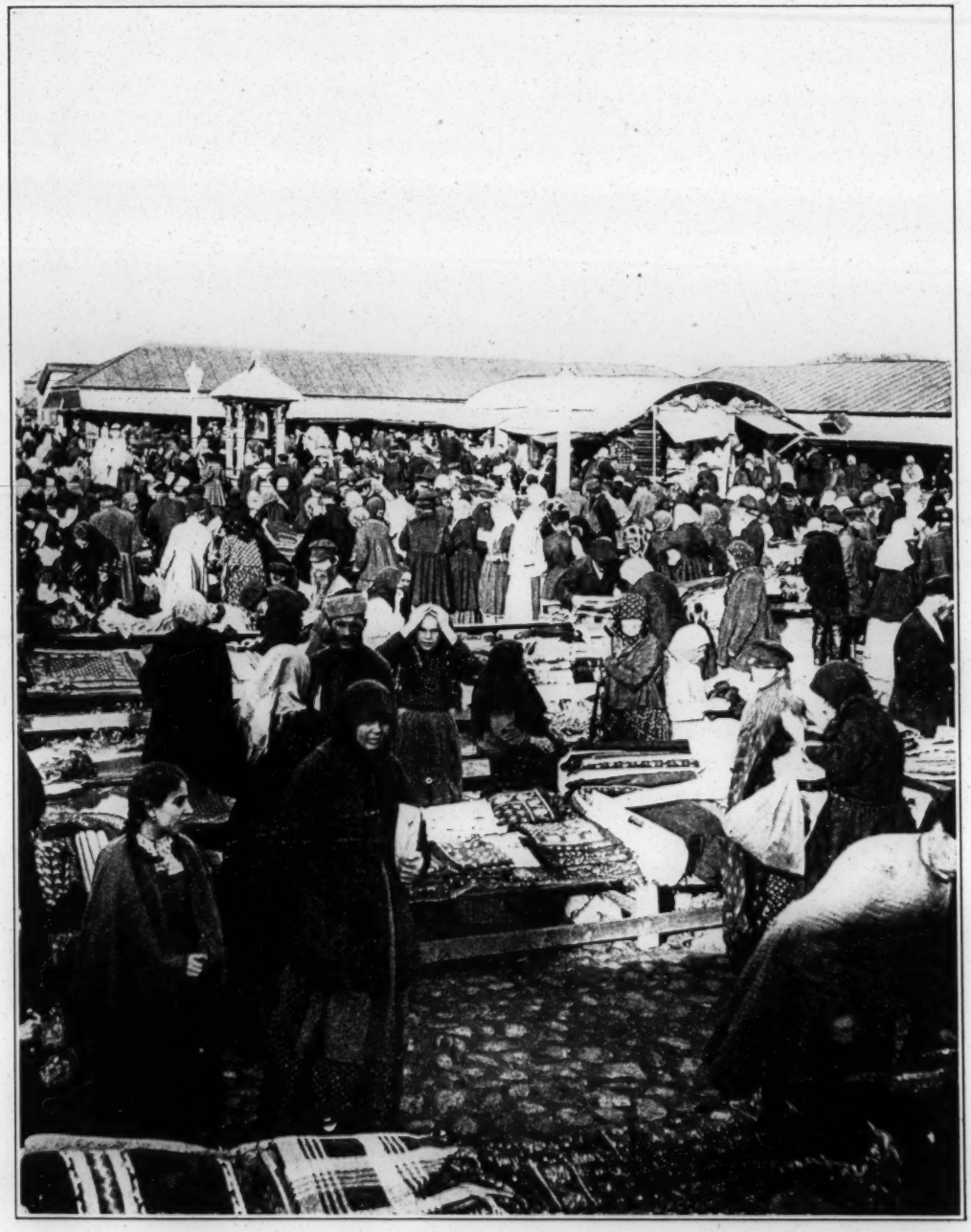
Old Defenses of the Kremlin—the Citadel of Moscow

These walls have withstood many mediæval sieges, but would fall at once if modern artillery or bombs attacked them. The clock tower marks the sacred Gate of the Redeemer, where the orthodox Russian removes his hat in reverence for a miracle-working picture of the Saviour.



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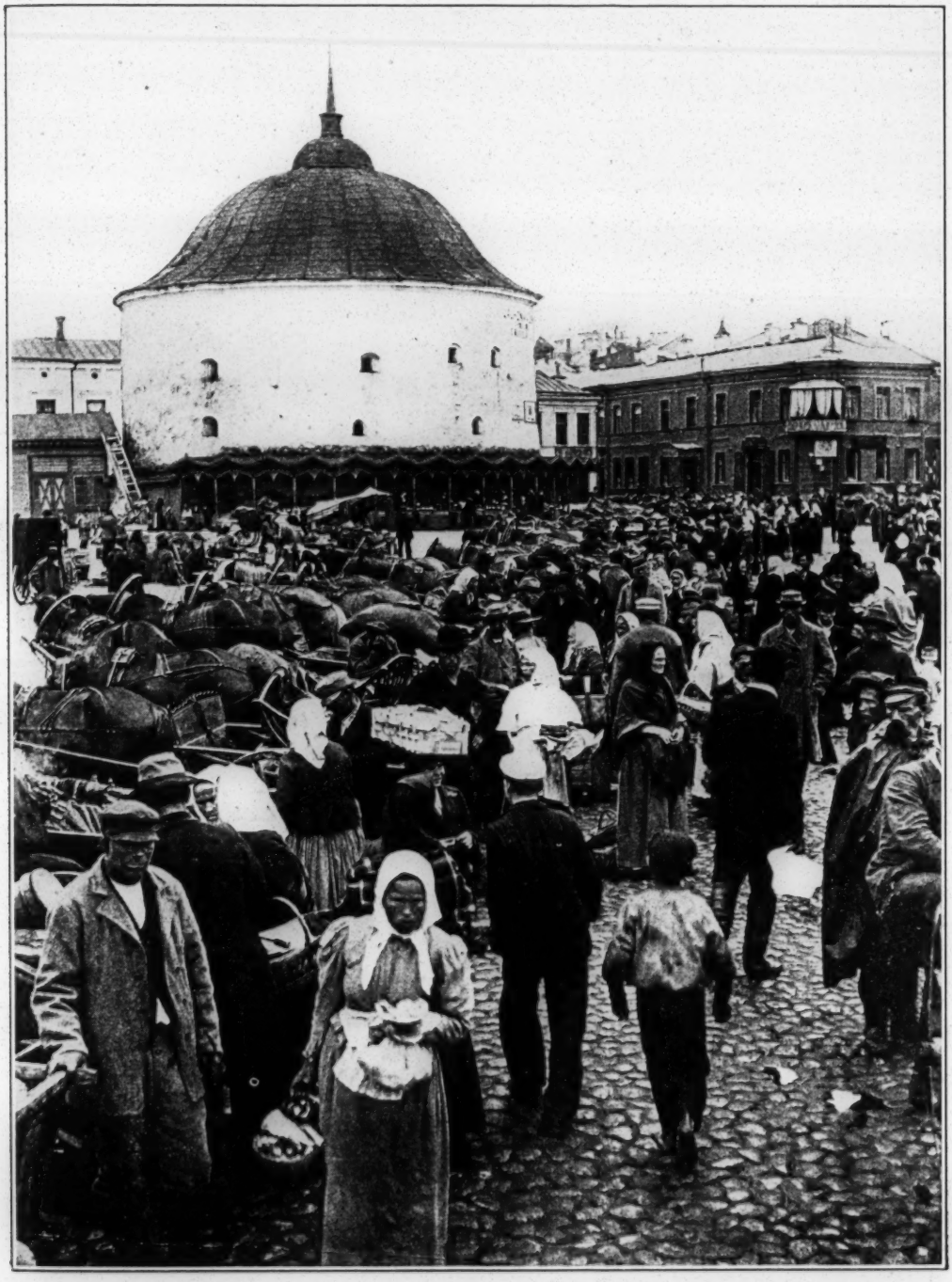
Russian Cloth Market in "the Fair" of Nijni-Novgorod, Russia



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The Market Place, Viborg, Finland

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Old St Petersburg

self a "god in the minds of his people." Autocracy had received a fresh sanction in their absolute and whole-hearted submission.

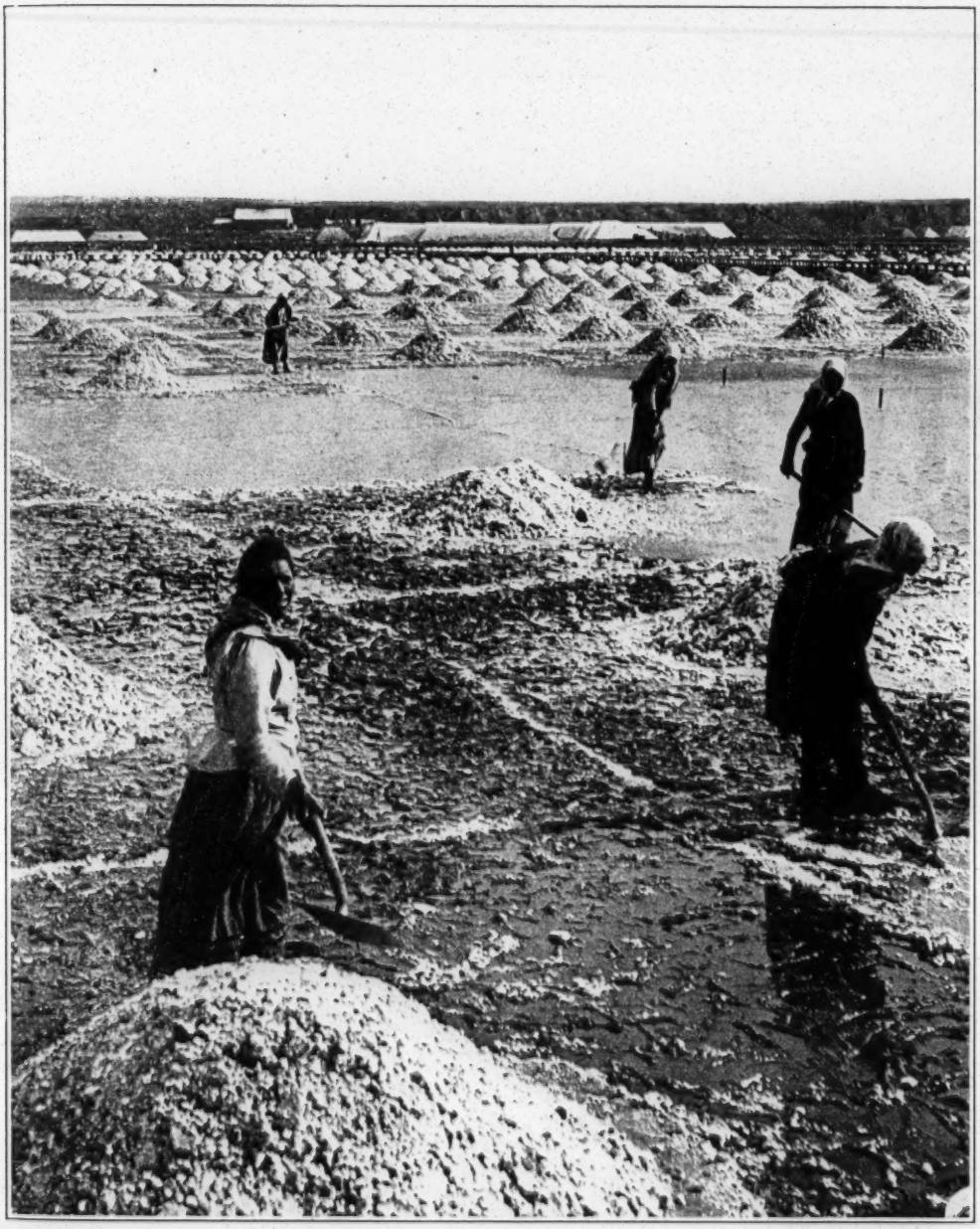
THE FIRST OF THE ROMANOFFS—MICHAEL, A BOY OF 17—IS ELECTED RULER

Suddenly the boy prince, Demetrius, the last heir of Ivan, died. With him the royal line of Rurik became extinct. There followed thirty years of lawlessness and anarchy, of disastrous civil and foreign war. At last, in 1613, a great assembly, made up from every rank and class in Russia, got together in Moscow. A national assembly, equally representative of a nation, neither Russia nor Europe had ever seen. This assembly, after long and fierce contention, chose Michael Romanoff as Tsar. Not a single condition did they impose upon that untried boy of seventeen thus unanimously elected ruler. When he appeared before them, upon their knees they shouted, "Promise that thou wilt graciously consent to rule over us." And so with autocratic power the dynasty of the Romanoffs was seated upon the Imperial Russian throne. There is no other royal house reigning in Europe today which in equal degree owes its elevation to the free voice of the people. There is no other reigning house that does not trace its origin back to some successful warrior and owe its earliest advancement to the sword. In every other country, on some bloody plain, a Hastings or a Marchfield, William the Conqueror, the Hapsburghs, the Hohenzollerns, have carved for themselves and their descendants a title to the crown. The father of Michael Romanoff was no brilliant soldier, only a faithful parish priest, who was renowned for piety and ability, and who because of his noble qualities attained high ecclesiastical distinction.

Upon the autocratic throne, thus broad-based upon the popular will, sovereign succeeded sovereign for more than a century. On each monarch devolved the duty of choosing his heir from among the male or female members of the Imperial family. Always that choice was accepted by the nation. Smallpox caused the sudden death of Peter II, in 1730, before he had expressed any preference as to his successor. There were then living four descendants of Michael Romanoff. Three of them were women—Anna Ivanovna, Catharine Ivanovna, Elizabeth Petrovna—and a male infant a few months old. Eight of the most powerful nobles banded themselves together in what they termed "The High Secret Council." They obtained control of the army and of every department of government and administration.

A CONSTITUTION IS OFFERED

They then offered the crown to Anna Petrovna, subject to the following conditions: (1) The High Council should



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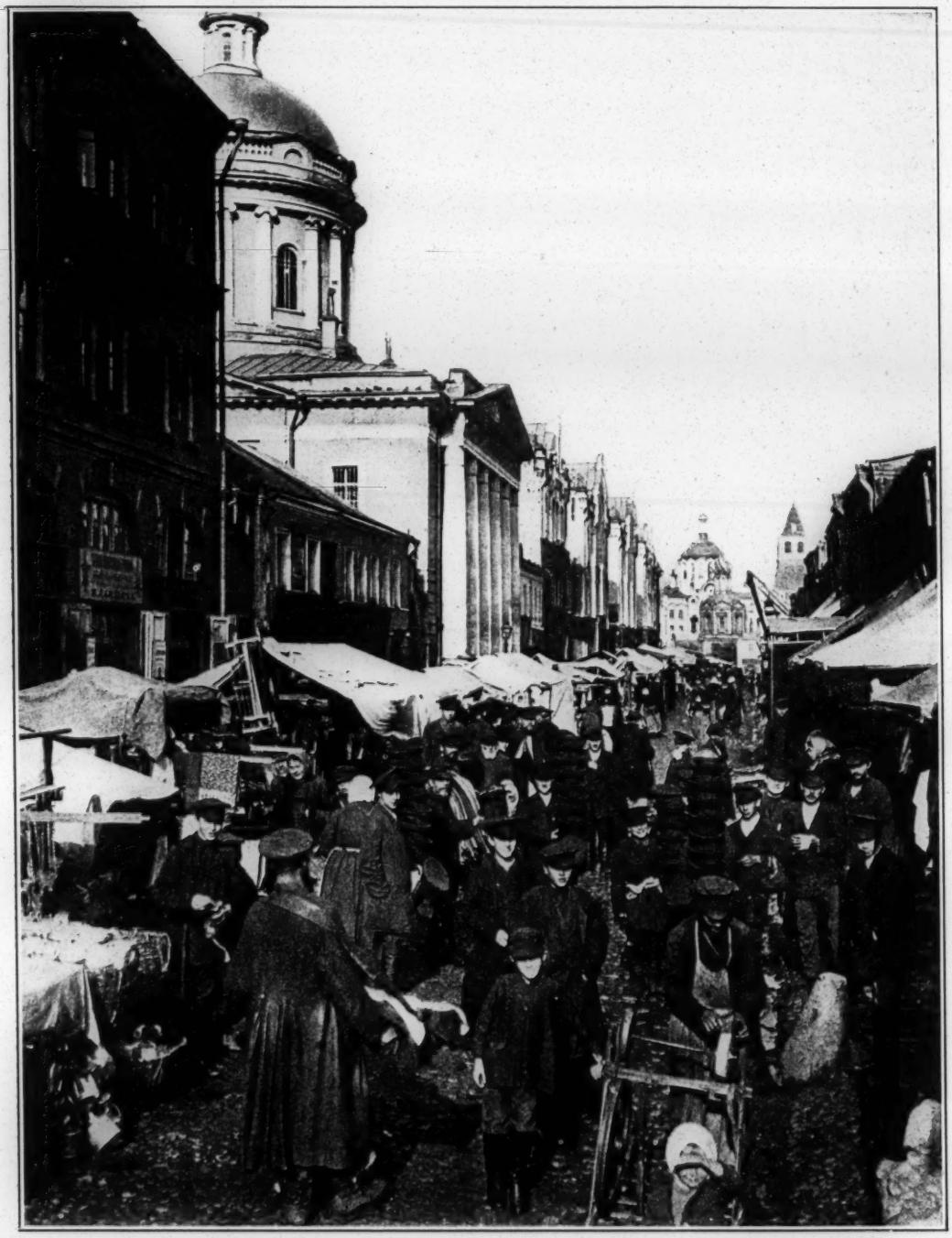
A Reservoir After Evaporation. Turning up the Salt, Salt Fields, Solinen, Russia



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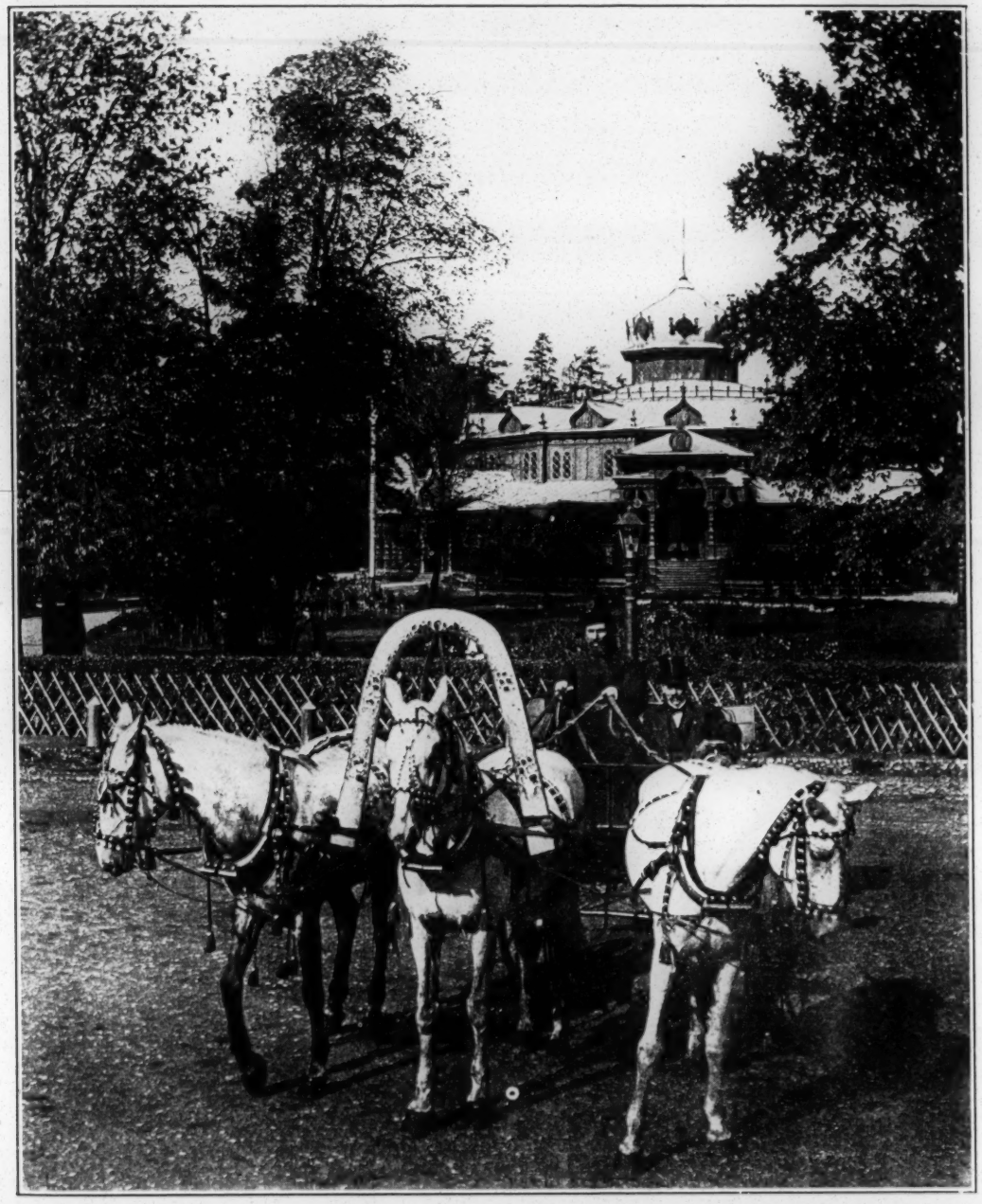
Moscow Workmen in one of the Street Markets



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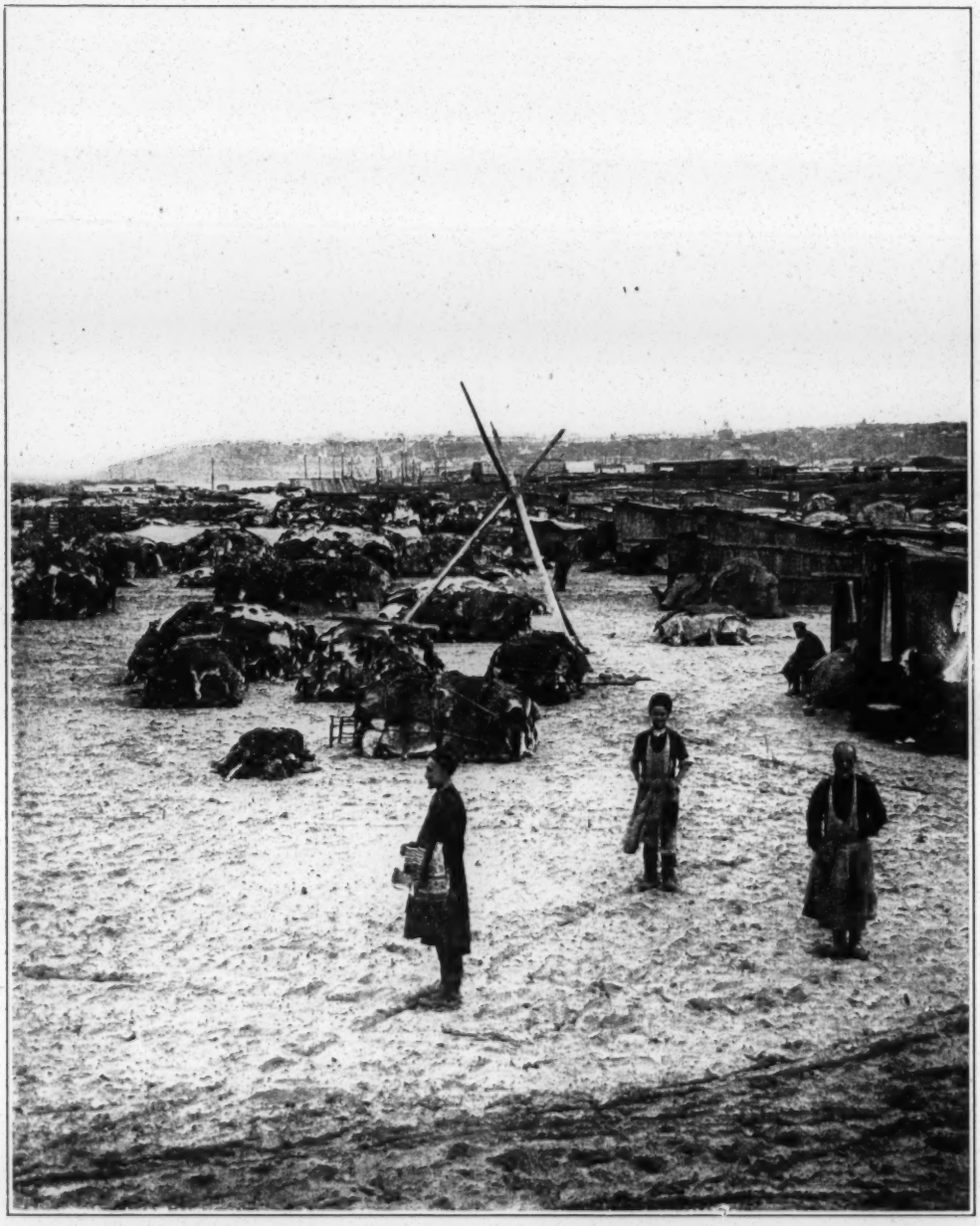
A Characteristic Russian Troika (three-horse carriage) before the Old Petrofski Palace in the Northwest Suburb of Moscow

The Palace is not now occupied as a royal residence



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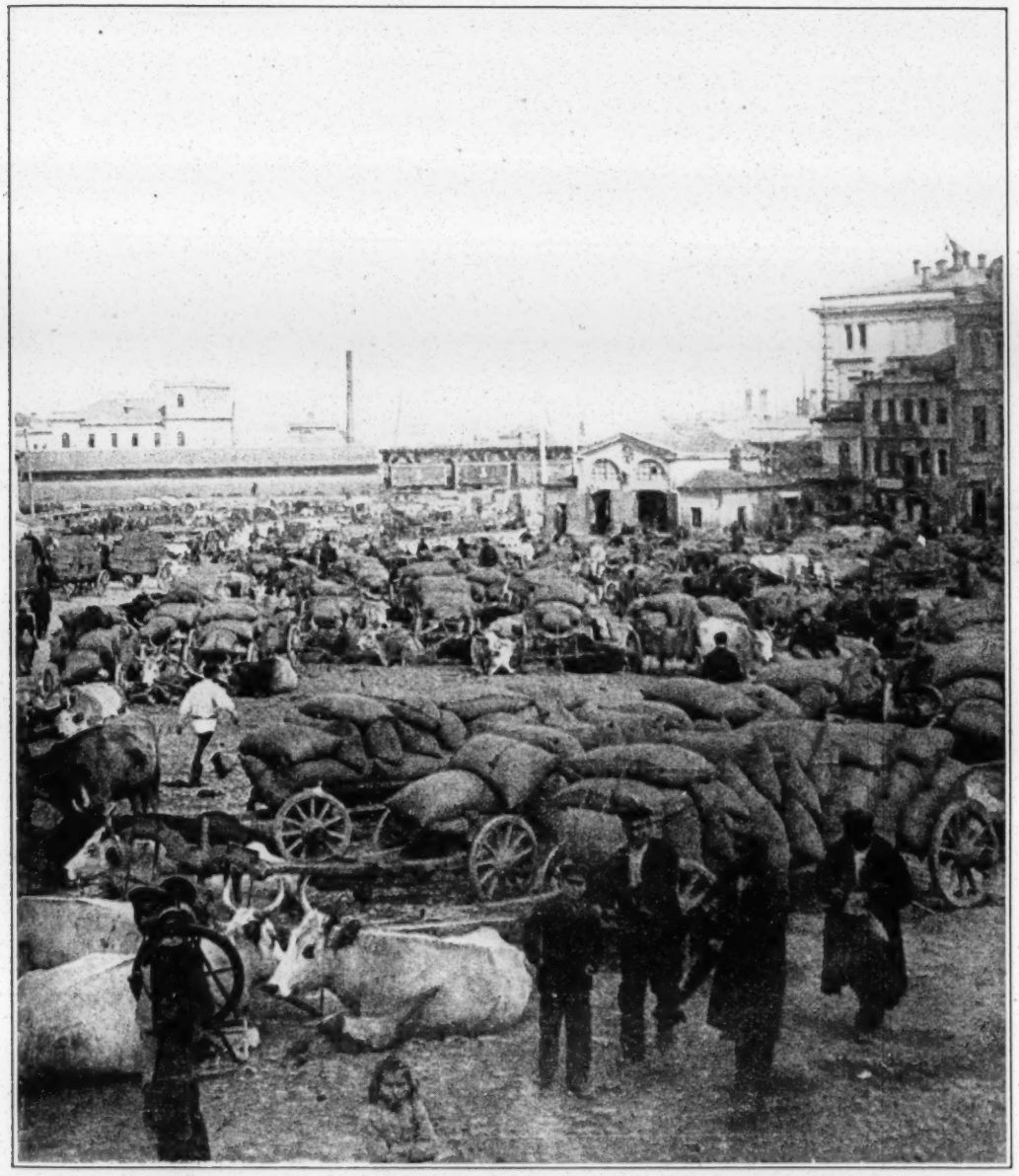
Siberian Hides and Village of the Tartars, Nijni-Novgorod, Russia



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Wheat for Export at Russia's Great Southern Seaport, Odessa

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Country Women Tramping into Krief, Russia, with the Morning Supply of Milk

An enormous weight is carried uncomplainingly with the help of the pall over the shoulders to which the milk-jars are attached. These women do the heaviest part of the farm work, milking at daybreak or earlier, and often walking five or six miles to deliver their wares. Very few of them can read or write, and they are helpless under the domination of the priests and village head-men.

be a permanent body, self-perpetuating, and should be consulted by the Tsarina in all state affairs. (2) Without the consent of the council the Tsarina should make neither peace nor war, should levy no taxes, should alienate no public territory, and should appoint no public official of higher rank than colonel. (3) No member of the nobility should be executed or condemned, and no property of a noble should be confiscated except after a fair trial by his peers. (4) The Tsarina should neither marry nor appoint a successor without the consent of the council. (5) Violation by the Tsarina of any of the aforesaid stipulations should constitute forfeiture of the crown. Anna accepted all these conditions, solemnly signed the document, and was then proclaimed Tsarina or Empress of Russia.

Magna Charta, with all its sublime provisions, seemed thus naturalized upon Russian soil. The *homo liber* of the Norman Latin in the English charter meant practically the same as the word *tchin*, or noble, in the paper of the High Secret Council. So from the banks of the Thames Runnymead had been transplanted to the banks of the Neva. The 24 Norman barons who forced the submission of King John lived again, 515 years after, in the eight Russian lords who had secured the acquiescence of Anna. Inviolability of person and property, *habeas corpus*, trial by jury, hitherto the monopoly of distant English islanders, were now the guaranteed right of the Slav. The Slavic Empire, no longer autocratic, possessed a constitution.

THE PEOPLE REJECT THE PROFERRED CONSTITUTION AND REFUSE TO LIMIT THE POWERS OF THE TSAR

The announcement of this constitution was received with general indignant protest. Under severe penalties the High Council forbade the people anywhere to assemble; but they could not disperse and silence the crowds which got together all over Russia and denounced the new system. The Tsarina was put under guard and only partisans of the new order allowed to approach her. Thus the council hoped she might be kept ignorant of the mounting tide of popular feeling. Yet the council found itself powerless, despite its being entrenched in possession of the government and despite the rank and wealth and personal influence of its members. On February 25, 1731, a zemski sobor, a national assembly, dared to convene in Moscow. The eight hundred elected deputies belonged to the nobility, the clergy, the professions and trades, and the peasant class. They drew up a formal and unanimous protest against the constitution. The Tsarina entered the hall and was greeted with frenzied shouts, "We will not let laws limit our Tsarina!" "Let our Tsarina be an autocrat just like her predecessors!" The Tsarina calmed the tumult and adjourned the meeting. At the next session a formal petition was voted by the eight hundred for the reëstablishment of autocracy. The council melted away. Autocracy reigned again as in all the days since the time of Rurik. Thus ended the first, if not the only, genuine attempt at a liberal government in the Muscovite Empire. This is the most important, the most significant, event in the history of Russia.

Through another century successive sovereigns sat upon the autocratic throne. In 1822 the childless Alexander I was Tsar. His brother, the Grand Duke Constantine, had been acknowledged as heir. Constantine desired to marry the Polish girl Jane Grodzinska. Because she was of humble origin, a Catholic, and a Pole, Alexander could not tolerate his brother's choice as the future Tsarina. Between the maiden and the throne Constantine was compelled to choose. To him her love was dearer than the Imperial crown. He solemnly renounced his rights as heir apparent in favor of his younger

brother, Nicolas. This renunciation was known only to Alexander and their mother, the Dowager Empress Maria, and kept secret even from Nicolas himself. Two years later Alexander died. Then ensued between the two surviving brothers a contest almost without parallel. Constantine, then governor of Poland, ordered the troops at Warsaw to swear allegiance to Nicolas. Nicolas at St Petersburg ordered the troops throughout Russia to swear allegiance to Constantine. The fraternal rivalry continued for three weeks. It was ended only by the solemn declaration of Constantine that he had once renounced the succession, and that nothing could induce him to go back upon his word.

Constantine was the older. Moreover, he was a soldier and the idol of the army, which had been determined to enthrone him against his will. Nicholas was a younger brother and almost unknown. There then existed in the country two secret organizations—the Society of the North and the Society of the South—both imbued with the ideas of the French Revolution and hostile to the autocracy. By them the devotion of the masses to the principle of legitimacy was cunningly made to serve an attempt at revolution. Some of the colonels at the capital, though favorable to Constantine, were inclined to this liberal party. Those officers ordered their men to shout, "Long live Constantine" and "Long live the Constitution" (Constitutza)! "Who is this Constitutza?" asked the puzzled soldiers. "Long live Constitutza! She must be Constantine's wife." One colonel cried, "Long live the Republic!" The soldiers said, "Who is Republic? That is not the name of the Tsar." The colonel replied that it was the sort of government they were going to set up and that there would not be any Tsar in it. "Oh," said the soldiers, "then it isn't the right thing for Russia. We have got to have a Tsar." And they themselves arrested the colonel.

Nicolas I, his son Alexander II, his son Alexander III, his son Nicolas II, the present Tsar, such is the succession since that time to the present hour.

It is not unusual to speak of these men as irresponsible autocrats and to regard the Russian system as an irresponsible autocracy. But an irresponsible autocrat never has held the scepter, and irresponsible autocracy never has existed, even in phlegmatic Russia.

An irresponsible autocrat among people of Indo-European stock is an utter impossibility. Each autocrat is weighed in the balances and judged—if need be punished—by those over whom he reigns. This judgment no Russian autocrat from the accession of Michael Romanoff has escaped. The kindly, well-intentioned, feeble, self-contradictory, ill-starred Nicolas II is being weighed in that balance now. Your judgment and mine, the judgment of foreigners or of posterity, will concern or affect him little. But long-suffering, patient, little exacting as the Russian people are, they are inexorable as fate, merciless as doom once their judgment made.

The dumb popular heart makes no harsh or hard demand upon its sovereigns. It asks that the autocrat shall be profoundly Russian, Russian in feeling and sympathy, in orthodoxy and faith, in fidelity to old tradition, in heart-whole devotion to her whom the peasant reverently calls "Holy Russia." It asks that he shall develop the national resources and augment the national strength; that he shall increase the national territory and maintain the prestige of the national arms; that he shall keep Russia's name glorious. This is not too much to require of him to whom the nation has intrusted its all.

THE GENERAL CHARACTER OF THE TSARS

When Peter III, unnatural and debauched, drank in his orgies to the success of foreign troops and gloated over

disasters to his own ; when Paul, cynic and half mad, flouted the church and betrayed the national cause, the cup of wrath was full. It matters little that the executioners who struck them down were self-appointed, and, no better than hired assassins, held no mandate for regicide. In the line of Russian autocrats those two stand out with a shameful preëminence.

Not all the sovereigns since Michael Romanoff have been great. More than one has been deficient in private virtue. In some there flowed not a drop of Slavic blood. But they all bore the test of being supremely Russian, only Russian, at the core. Save the execrated two, each down to the accession of Nicolas II, in 1894, contributed his full share to Russian power and prestige, both at home and abroad. Like the concentric rings of an oak tree were the territorial accretions of the Russian Empire. Each larger ring indicated a later reign.

In other lands there have been other autocrats, but always alike in this : each has fallen or stood according to his ultimate military failure or success.

Had the mass of the people on whom his power rested really desired equal rights and personal liberty and self-government, the autocrat would not have been tolerated for an hour. The foremost autocrat of all time is the great Napoleon, child of the French Revolution.

"He was a despot—granted !
But the avtos of his autocratic mouth
Said yea i' the people's French ; he magnified
The image of the freedom he denied :

And if they asked for rights, he made reply,
'Ye have my glory !' and so, drawing round them
His ample purple, glorified and bound them
In an embrace that seemed identity.
He ruled them like a tyrant—true ! but none
Were ruled like slaves : each felt Napoleon."

Thus was it while Marengo, and Austerlitz, and Jena, and Friedland, and Wagram studded like stars his victorious name. The march to Moscow, the retreat from Leipsic, the catastrophe at Waterloo, could have no other meaning than St Helena.

Since February 6, 1904, the on-looking world has beheld an unexampled spectacle. It has seen Russia staggering under such humiliation from a foe, once despised, as no other European nation ever endured at the hand of an Asiatic. In the monotonous story of a dozen months there is not a single alleviating feature to salve Russian pride except the admirable working of the trans-Siberian railway and the stolid, unbroken valor with which the Russian soldier has faced continuous defeat.

The diplomacy of Russia, before and during the war, has been as deplorable as her generalship. Her state papers, whether in the form of protests or of communication with other powers, have been querulous and almost puerile. Her wily and unscrupulous enemy, equipped with all the appliances of the West and all the subtlety of the East, has so excelled at every point as to render haughty Russia an object of pity and derision.

All this detail the common Russian does not know. He does know that, despite hundreds of millions lavished and thousands of men sacrificed, the blackness has not been relieved by a single victory, and that the total has been defeat, retreat, and surrender. The dull ache of unspeakable humiliation is in his soul. Marvelous is it that in fury, blind as Samson's, the whole nation has not already risen as one man to pull down the pillars of the state. Strikes and riots there have been, and massacres by infuriated men, but neither revolution nor rebellion, no universal outburst commensurate with the hideous tragedy in the East.

There are many voices, but, as in the crowd before the temple, some cry one thing and some another. The only audible sounds breathe indignation and rage.

Now there has come a temporary hush. For a time the gaze is diverted to that forlorn squadron plowing its uncertain way through unknown and treacherous waters. One signal victory of Rodjestvensky's fleet may reverse all that has gone before, retrieve all the battles lost, redeem autocracy and the Tsar. In the anguish of suspense the autocrat and the nation listen and wait.

THE PRESENT TSAR

Upon a train some days ago I sat near two gentlemen engaged in earnest conversation. They were talking about a third, apparently a friend of their youth. They seemed to be summing up his life and character. Said one, "He was always hampered by his inheritance." Said the other, "Well, I think he blundered along just as well as he knew how." Then I caught another sentence, "He never knew whom he was able to trust." Their conversation ended with, "He would have been a great deal happier if he had been a clerk in New York." Despite the distance in race and rank, those random remarks epitomize the life story of Nicolas II.

Far happier for him a simple house in Yonkers or Harlem than the sumptuous halls of the Winter Palace. Better fitted is he for the routine of an office and a desk than for the perils and responsibilities of a crown. Then, when the day's work is done, what joy to reach his home and toss his children in his arms, and picnic on a holiday or a Sunday in the suburbs with his family. Such, they tell us, is the gentle, homely, wife loving nature of the present Tsar. Whatever the destiny of the autocrat and of the autocracy, the Russian people remain. Rudyard Kipling, in "The Man Who Was"—perhaps the most powerful story Kipling ever wrote—puts upon the lips of Dirkovitch the prophecy of that for which the centuries have been waiting: "The Czar! Posh! I snap my fingers—I snap my fingers at him. Do I believe in him? No! But the Slav who has done nothing, *him* I believe. Seventy—how much?—millions that have done nothing—not one thing. Napoleon was an episode! . . . Hear you, old peoples, we have done nothing in the world—out here. All our work is to do: and it shall be done, old peoples. Get away! Seventy millions—get away, you old people!" *

* Some good books on Russia are:

"Greater Russia." Wirt Gerrare. Macmillan Co. 1904. Several chapters deal with Russia, but the larger portion of the work relates to Siberia and the Amur territory. $3.00.

"All the Russias." Henry Norman. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902. A very satisfactory account of the resources and general administration of Russia. $4.00.

"The Great Siberian Railway." M. M. Shoemaker. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1903.

"Russia." Sir D. M. Wallace. Henry Holt. $2.00. The best general account of Russia in the English language.

"Russia in Asia, 1558-1899." A. S. Krausse. Henry Holt. 1899. $4.00. A history of Russian advance across Asia.

"Story of Russia." W. R. Morfill. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1890. (Story of Nations' series.) $1.50.

"The Russian Advance." A. J. Beveridge. Harper Bros. 1903. $2.50. A graphic portrayal of the causes of the sweep of Russia across Asia.

THE PURPOSE OF THE ANGLO-JAPANESE ALLIANCE*

By Hon. Eki Hioki

First Secretary of the Japanese Legation

NO Japanese need feel himself among strangers when he addresses a British or American audience, excepting for the language that he has to use, and in talking to a gathering of Englishmen living in America he doubly feels among friends. We of Japan realize how much we owe to the great Anglo-Saxon nations, how much they have taught us, and how much we have still to learn from them. Some of your English writers have called us "the English of the Orient," and it was an American who termed Japanese "the Yankees of the Far East." We have not as yet progressed so far on the road to Yankeedom as to be able to sell you gentlemen of Boston wooden nutmegs, but we are still young in the ways of modern civilization. Give us time and there is hope we may even teach Connecticut a thing or two.

Having the honor to be with you tonight—inadequately taking the place of His Majesty's minister plenipotentiary, whose health unfortunately makes it impossible for him to be present, greatly to his regret—it is proper for me to express felicitations for this great day, echoing the sentiment deeply imbedded in the bosoms of the fifty millions of His Japanese Majesty's loyal subjects. Nothing would be more out of place, however, than an attempt on my part to dwell upon the significance of the Empire Day before the British audience. Let it suffice to say that the memory of Queen Victoria, that high personage, whose reign distinguishes itself in history not only in point of length, but in the fact that it is so peculiarly coincident with the wonderful tide of general advancement of civilization and material prosperity which has blessed Great Britain and the world in general, may perpetually be preserved in so fitting a manner as is done here tonight by the United British Societies in America.

This is not an occasion for making a long address, but being present here as the representative of Japan and as a guest of Britishers, I feel I cannot let the opportunity pass without saying a few words about that remarkable compact that binds our two countries to the satisfaction of ourselves and to the benefit of the world.

The object of the alliance, as is well known to you, cannot be better explained than by the language of Lord Lansdowne. In his covering and explanatory dispatch to Sir Claude McDonald, British minister at Tokio, Lord Lansdowne wrote: "We have each of us desired that the integrity and independence of the Chinese Empire should be preserved; that there should be no disturbance of the territorial *status quo* either in China or in the adjoining regions; that all nations should within those regions, as well as within the limits of the Chinese Empire, be afforded equal opportunities for the development of their commerce and industry, and that peace should not only be restored, but should for the future be maintained.

"His Majesty's government trusts that the agreement may be found of mutual advantage to the two countries; that it will make for the preservation of peace,

* An address delivered at the Empire Day Banquet given by the United British Societies of Boston, May 24, 1905.

and that should peace unfortunately be broken it will have the effect of restricting the area of hostilities."

Here you have in the fewest possible words the spirit that animated Japan no less than Great Britain. Various comments have been made by different writers and statesmen as to the effect of the alliance upon the world. It has been asserted by some newspapers that this alliance is directly responsible for the present war.

Let them say whatever they choose, but a conscientious study of the document itself cannot fail to convince any fair-minded man that these allegations are entirely groundless. The alliance is purely peaceful and defensive. In one of the passages of the dispatch above referred to, Lord Lansdowne said that "we join in entirely disclaiming any aggressive tendencies." But you must observe that the fact which made Great Britain abandon her long cherished traditional pride and policy of "splendid isolation" is in itself a sufficient proof that the situation in the Far East was one of grave danger and demanded unusual precaution. It was evident that Russian aggressions were no mere phantoms, but were terribly real and threatening.

These aggressions mainly called this alliance into existence for the mutual protection of the interests of the signatories, and later forced Japan to take up arms against her colossal neighbor for the defense of her rights and her very existence.

The primary objects of the alliance are the maintenance of the integrity of the Chinese Empire and the maintenance of the open-door policy in China, the policy which was conceived and so ardently advocated by the British statesmen, and which was so skillfully and happily inaugurated as a matter of international concern by one of the foremost statesmen and diplomats of our day—Hon. John Hay—three years before the conclusion of the Anglo-Japanese alliance. In spite of all the adverse criticisms emanating from unfriendly sources, I confidently declare that all the objects of the alliance have been so far nobly and successfully accomplished.

By the recent course of events in the Far East these conditions which imminently menaced the integrity of the Chinese Empire have largely been removed and the ground for the open-door policy has been made firmer. Were it not for the Anglo-Japanese Alliance, the war might have occurred in 1902, when China demanded the evacuation of Manchuria by Russia. It was in fact delayed at least for some time, and the area of hostilities has been quite effectively restricted, since its outbreak, by reason of this alliance, which has in this respect received indirectly a very strong support from the enlightened policy pursued by the United States in reference to China.

To me it appears that the effect of the alliance has given so much satisfaction that, if the language used by the President of the Victorian Club in his invitation to this banquet extended to the Japanese representative expressed the sentiment of the British public—which I believe and hope to be the case—the renewal of that compact after the expiration of the prescribed terms is inevitable.

We are anxious, with Great Britain and the United States, to see China become rich, strong, and self-repecting. We have our own salvation to work out in our own way. We wanted simply to be let alone and to settle the problems that demanded solution. We were not animated by territorial greed or lust of conquest. We preferred the conquest of peace to the victories of war. We know that the Far East has a great future, and the greater the future the better for all the world. Japan could hope to gain nothing by war and had

everything to gain by peace. The Anglo-Japanese alliance sought to give no advantage either to Great Britain or to Japan that was not common to all other nations. England, too, always stood for "equal opportunity," for a fair field and no favor, and that is our policy, and it has long been the avowed policy of the United States. The saying, "May the best man win," applies to nations as well as to individuals.

Certainly, neither England nor Japan made this alliance with the hope that it will provoke war. In laying the treaty before the House of Lords, Lord Lansdowne said that it was a guarantee of peace, and so it was regarded by the Japanese statesmen.

I think no further evidence is needed to prove that the alliance was not concluded with the hope that it would lead to war; I think, on the contrary, every fair-minded man must be convinced that both Great Britain and Japan were animated solely and sincerely by the single purpose to preserve peace and give commercial development full sway. And I repeat it to you, gentlemen, with full appreciation of my statement, that the alliance has fulfilled its purpose. It had made for peace as much as it could. There comes a time in the life of every nation, as in the life of every individual, when the nation must choose between duty and its stern responsibilities, or weakly yield to escape obligations and pay the penalty for weakness tenfold. The war now unhappily waging in Manchuria was inevitable. It is a war not of our seeking. It was forced upon us, as I said before, by aggression and arrogance.

I assume you are familiar with the history of the negotiations preceding the outbreak of hostilities, and I feel confident that you can have only reached one conclusion from a study of the facts. You cannot fail to have been impressed by the spirit of forbearance, patience, and absolute fairness displayed by His Majesty's government, and the desire, pushed almost to the extreme limit of generosity, to do everything possible to avoid war. But we should have been unworthy the respect of our friends in England as well as in America, we should have forfeited our own self-respect, if we had permitted our desire for peace to make us play the part of weaklings and surrender our rights and interests because we were not men enough to defend them. We have done what Englishmen would have done. We have done what Americans, Frenchmen, Germans, and even Zulus would have done. Our national existence was at stake. To die in its defense was more honorable than to live and lose all that we hold most precious. It is most fitting to quote as an expression of my own desire what was said by President Roosevelt: "We wish peace; but we wish the peace of justice; the peace of righteousness. We wish it because we think it right, and not because we are afraid."

JAPAN DOES NOT MENACE THE UNITED STATES POLITICALLY OR COMMERCIALLY

The sympathy of America having been so freely expressed in our favor—a sympathy, I beg to assure you, very precious to us and which we shall ever most sacredly cherish—it may appear ungracious for me to take exception to any expressions of American opinion, but I avail myself of this opportunity, knowing that what I say will not be misinterpreted, to correct an erroneous impression. It is quite evident a belief exists that the strength and power of Japan is both a political and commercial menace to the United States. It has been said that Japan dwells with covetous eye on the Philippines and longs for the Pacific Island possessions of the United States. I assure you no serious-minded person in Japan entertains any such thought. Japan has enough to do for many a year to come to develop her

own resources, to assist in the regeneration of Korea, to improve the condition of Formosa, to profit by the commercial growth of Manchuria. The Philippines are outside of the sphere of our interest and form no part in our industrial and commercial expansion. Instead of Japan coveting the possessions of the United States in the Pacific, Japan welcomes the United States as a neighbor as tending still further to increase the bonds of friendship that exist between the two countries.

For the same reason that Japan does not menace the United States politically Japan does not threaten the United States commercially. I have seen it stated that Japan will control the markets of China to the injury of American trade; but that is an imaginary fear. There never has been, is not now, or ever will be a strong commercial rivalry between Japan and the United States. Japan sells to China principally seaweeds, salt fish, beche-de-mer and other marine products, mushrooms, ginseng, copper, coal, matches, cotton yarns and fabrics. The United States sells to China flour, kerosene oil, timber, machinery, railway materials, and cotton goods. Where do Japan and the United States come into conflict? Each is supplying China with articles which admit of no competition. Japan is buying a large quantity of flour from the United States. She does not produce kerosene, timber, machinery, and railway materials. The only article in which there can be a possible competition is in cotton goods. In this, however, the competition is in theory rather than in fact. In the first place, Japan does not produce cotton, and therefore all raw material used in the cotton industry is imported from the United States, India, and China. Now, there are five competitors in this line of goods in the Chinese market—Great Britain, the United States, India, Japan, and China. The British and American interests lie principally in cotton fabrics and yarns of the finer quality, and between these two countries there exists competition. The interests of Japan and India lie principally in cotton yarns and fabrics of a coarser kind, while the Chinese interests are similar to those of Japan and India, and there exists competition between these three countries. But between the former two and the latter three there is almost no competition.

Further, a careful study of the result of competition in China shows that instead of one article driving its competitor out of the market, both competitors simultaneously increased their respective sales. The reason for this is that in a vast country like China, where there exists practically an unknown and an inexhaustible market and as yet such a small portion is open to the influence of foreign commerce, the result of competition is always to widen the extent of the market.

Nay, instead of ugly commercial rivalry between Japan and the United States, we shall, I hope, have a peaceful and harmonious trade relation between the two countries. We shall sell to America in increasing quantities products that America needs and does not produce—such as tea and silk—and take from her such articles as are more profitable to buy than to raise or produce in our own country. Instead of being rivals we shall be in the broadest sense partners—the one country will be a complement of the other. The United States will not be swamped by the products of the loom and the forge of Japan; Japan will not be stifled under an avalanche of factory-made goods of New England and the Pacific coast; but those great ships that move so majestically across the broad bosom of the Pacific will be freighted deep with the wares of the Orient and the Occident, adding to the wealth of the world and making both countries richer because of the enlightened policy that leads nations to buy and sell to each other and profit by both operations.

In China, Japan seeks no unfair advantage. She asks no favor from China that is not granted to England or the United States or to the entire world. With England and the United States she stands for the open door and, in the words of your great President, "square deal."

Under these conditions Japan is willing to take her chances in the rivalry of trade. We believe in the survival of the fittest in trade as well as in social development. If, in a fair field, we cannot hold our own position we shall be crowded out of the race, and it is right we should be. But we know that the trade of China is large enough for us all; that we can all share in it to our profit as well as to that of China, and instead of building on the ruins of a rival, we can build side by side for mutual advantage.

THE PURPLE VEIL

A ROMANCE OF THE SEA

OFF the New England coast a curious object is often found floating on the water, somewhat resembling a lady's veil of gigantic size and of a violet or purple color. The fishermen allude to it generally as the "purple veil," and many have been the speculations concerning its nature and origin. In 1871 the late Prof. Spencer F. Baird had the opportunity of examining one of these objects at sea, and he found it to present the appearance "of a continuous sheet of a purplish-brown color, 20 or 30 feet in length and 4 or 5 feet in width, composed of a mucous substance, which was perfectly transparent, to which, as a whole, a purple color was imparted by the presence of specks distributed uniformly throughout the mass to the number of about thirty or more to the square inch."

On examining the substance with a magnifying glass it was found that each little speck consisted of an embryonic fish, moving vigorously within the narrow limits of a little cell in the jelly-like mass, so that it was obvious that the purple veil, as a whole, was the egg-mass of a fish.

It is somewhat startling to be told, by so good an authority as Dr Theodore Gill, that the purple veil is the product of a single fish, and not so very large a fish either, as it rarely exceeds 3 feet in length, and that as many as 1,000,000 eggs may be contained in a single egg-mass. By allowing the eggs to develop under observation, Alexander Agassiz succeeded in identifying the parent fish as the *Lophius piscatorius*—variously known as the "Goose-fish," the "All-mouth," or the "Angler," one of the most remarkable fishes in existence.

It derived its name of "Goose-fish" from its "having been known to swallow live geese," a statement almost incredible; but a reputable fisherman told the late G. Brown Goode that "he once saw a struggle in the water, and found that a Goose-fish had swallowed the head and neck of a large loon, which had pulled it to the surface

FIG. 1.—Three eggs embedded in the gelatinous membrane in which they are laid; magnified. (After A. Agassiz.)

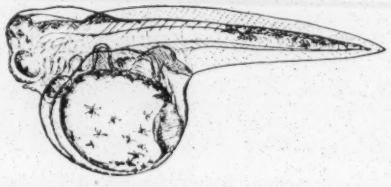


FIG. 2.—Young Angler taken out of the egg just previous to hatching. (After A. Agassiz.)

and was trying to escape." There is authentic record of seven wild ducks having been taken from the stomach of one of them. Slyly approaching from below, they seize birds as they float upon the surface. Reliable Cape Cod fishermen, Captains Nathaniel E. Atwood and Nathaniel Blanchard, assured Dr D. H. Storer that "when opened entire sea-fowl, such as large gulls, are frequently found in their stomachs, which they supposed them to catch in the night, when they are floating upon the surface of the water." Dr Storer was also informed by Captain Leonard West, of Chilmark, Mass., that he had known a Goose-fish to be taken having in its stomach six coots in a fresh condition. These he considered to have been swallowed when they had been diving to the bottom in search of food.

Any one who has looked into the vast cavity behind the jaws of this fish will concede the aptness of the name "All-mouth." The fish is a most voracious, carnivorous animal—indeed omnivorous—and quite indiscriminate in its diet. In Massachusetts it is said to annoy the fishermen "by swallowing the wooden buoys attached to the lobster pots," and a man is stated to have caught one "by using his boat anchor for a hook." Another feature of the fish is the slowness of its digestive powers, which is aptly illustrated by Couch, who says that on one occasion there were found in the stomach of this fish "nearly three-quarters of a hundred herring; and so little had they suffered change that they were sold by the fishermen in the market without any suspicion in the buyer of the manner in which they had been obtained."

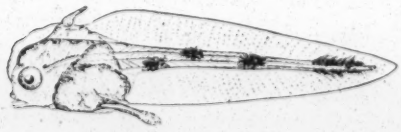


FIG. 3.—Young Angler not long after hatching; the yolk bag has entirely disappeared. (After A. Agassiz.)

The name "Angler" is not one in general use among shoremen and fishermen. It is a book name, and was specially coined for the *Lophius piscatorius* by Thomas Pennant in 1776. In his British Zoölogy he says he "changed the old name of *Fishing-frog* for the more simple one of *Angler*" simply because he did not like the former, which was one of the popular names. There was no lack, however, of other popular names from which to choose. In England the fish was known as the Fishing-frog, Frog-fish, Toad-fish, Pocket-fish, Monk-fish, Nass-fish, Sea-devil, Devil-fish, Wide-gut, Wide-gap, and Kettle-maw, and in America still other names were employed. On the Massachusetts coast it was known as the Goose-fish, in Rhode Island as the Bellows-fish, in Connecticut as the Molly-gut, and in North Carolina as the All-mouth.

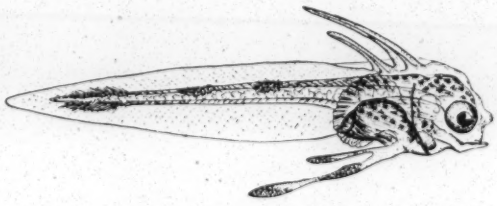


Fig. 4.—Young Angler with 2 elongated dorsal rays and rudiment of third and 2 large ventral rays. (After A. Agassiz.)

Although the Angler in its adult form is familiar to the fishermen of most countries under some of its various names, little or nothing was

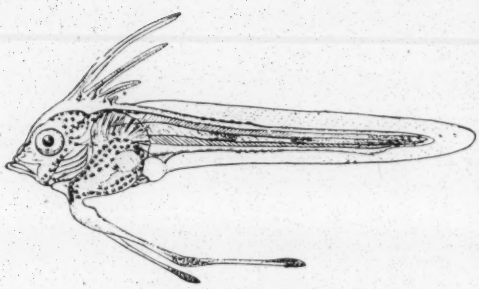


FIG. 5.—Young Angler showing still greater increase in length and number of anterior dorsal and ventral rays. (After A. Agassiz.)

known about its young until the discovery of the embryonic fish within their floating cradle in the "purple veil," and their subsequent identification as Anglers by development under observation. Dr Theodore Gill has now brought together the scattered fragments of knowledge relating to the development of this fish in an illustrated article published among the Smithsonian Miscellaneous Collections (vol. 47, part 4, May 6, 1905), entitled "The Life History of the Angler." All the statements given here are taken from this article.

Figures 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 illustrate various stages in the development of the Angler from the egg within the purple veil up to almost the adult form. In the stage of development shown by figure 6 the little fish when viewed from above, as in figure 7, reminds us somewhat of a long-tailed butterfly. In figure 8 the characteristic seaweed-looking appendages have been developed, and the fish is almost adult. In figure 9 the adult form is shown, and the peculiar nasal appendage with its frond-like extremity, which is supposed to serve as a bait for other fish, is well seen. The book name "Angler" is peculiarly appropriate to this fish in view of the fact that its chief occupation in life seems to consist in lying quietly at the bottom of the sea angling for other fish. According to Day, it often lies as if dead, "while its floating filaments, kept in motion by the tide, decoy other fish, and the Angler's tendril is no sooner touched than the game is caught."

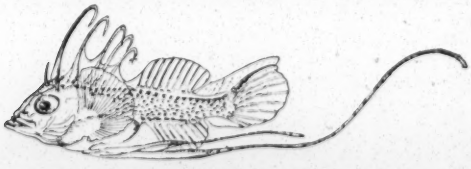


FIG. 6.—Young Angler in oldest pelagic stage, measuring 30 millimeters in length, seen in profile. (After A. Agassiz.)

Dr Theodore Gill quotes an interesting account of this fish written by Saville Kent, who had excellent opportunities of observing a large individual in the Manchester Aquarium in 1874.

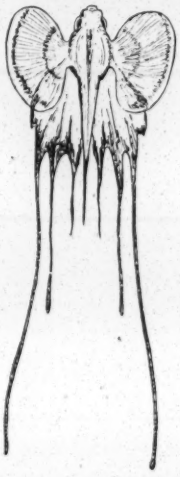


FIG. 7.—Young Angler of oldest pelagic stage, seen from above. (After A. Agassiz.)

The attention of Saville Kent was struck by the marvelous way in which this specimen would disappear in the aquarium without any apparent hiding place. "He is ever slinking off to the rock-work, and establishing himself so closely in some snug corner that it requires, notwithstanding his large size, a considerable amount of diligent search to detect him."

While the creature lay perfectly still,

it was difficult to distinguish the head of the fish from a piece of rock covered with sea-weed, calcareous sponges (*Grantia compressa*), ascidians, zoophytes, and the other low invertebrate forms which are usually to be seen on a rocky shore at low tide. The nasal appendage appeared to be the facsimile of a young frond of oar-weed (*Laminaria digitata*); but the most extraordinary mimicry of all appeared—where we would least expect it—in the creature's eyes! Saville Kent says:

"We have here in this fish, then, the most perfect possible embodiment of a rocky boulder, with its associated animal and vegetable growths.

"Lying prone at the bottom of the ocean among ordinary rocks and débris, it might well pass muster as an inanimate object, and the other fish on which it preys would approach it with impunity, and never discover their mistake until too late to escape from its merciless jaws.

"Ensconce the animal snugly, however, in the crevice of some precipitous submarine cliff, and the illusion is more perfectly complete. No strategy need now be exerted by the voracious fish to attract his prey; he has only to lie close and quiet, letting his tendrils sway to and fro in the passing current like the weeds around him, and the shoals will approach browsing the vegetation or pursuing their crustaceous diet—*right into his very mouth.*"

H. A. L.

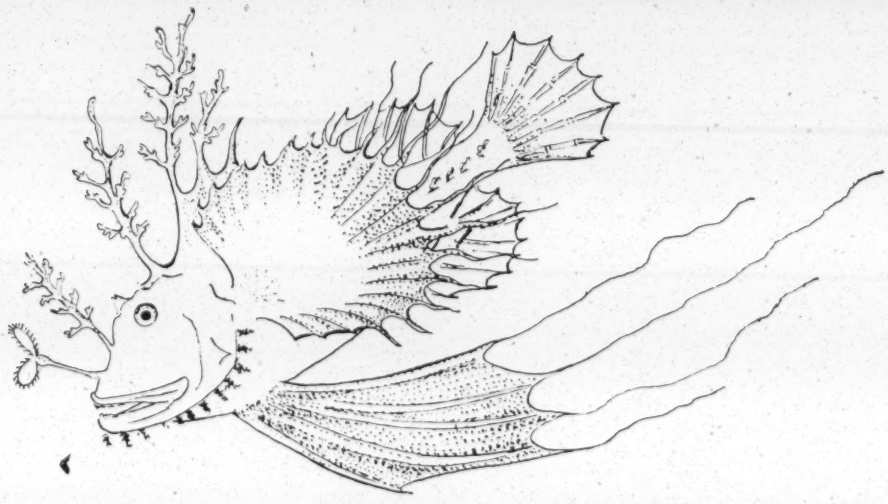


FIG. 8.—Young Angler with most of the characteristics of adults, but larger pectorals and ventrals and less flattened head. (After Rüppell.)

"These organs are very large and prominent, the iris being conical in shape, of a yellow ground color, with longitudinal stripes of a darker shade, while the pupil, commencing abruptly at the summit, is of so jetty a hue that the aspect of the whole is that of a hollow truncated cone, resembling, with its longitudinal stripes, the deserted shell of an acorn barnacle, and with an amount of exactness that is apparent to the most ordinary observer.

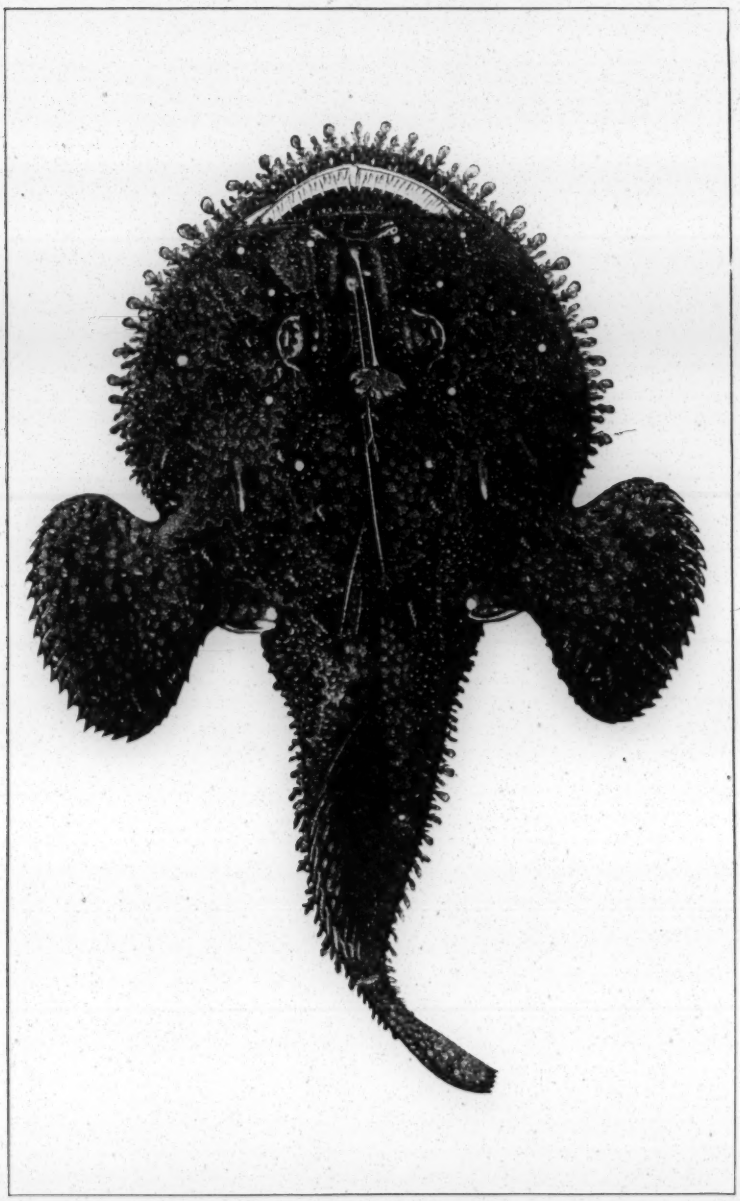


FIG. 9.—The Common Angler (*Lophius piscatorius*). (After W. von Wright in Smitt.)

For this and the preceding eight illustrations the Magazine is indebted to Dr Theodore Gill, of the Smithsonian Institution

OUR MINES AND QUARRIES

THE United States Bureau of the Census has published a handsome report on the mines and quarries of the United States for 1902. It is a volume of 1,100 quarto pages, giving a very complete and detailed account of our diverse mineral resources, the annual products of which are worth more than $1,000,000,000. An interesting feature of the report is the chapter on electricity in mining, by Thomas C. Martin. The remarkable progress made in recent years in transmission of power through the utilization of water-courses has enabled mining men to use electricity in every branch of their work. Electric locomotives have been substituted for cars pulled by horses or men. Electric motors are used for all kinds of work—drilling, coal cutting, hoisting, pumping, ventilating, etc. As a result a great many mining regions which formerly were too costly to operate from lack of fuel are now worked with much profit.

The report also contains interesting chapters on copper, iron ore, gold, and silver, petroleum, quarries, and every important mineral. It also discusses the resources of the different states.

The census statistics were gathered in collaboration with the division of the mineral resources of the Geological Survey, among those who contributed to its success being Messrs Wm. M. Steuart, Joseph D. Lewis, David T. Day, F. H. Olyphant, Joseph Struthers, Story B. Ladd, Joseph Hyde Pratt, George F. Kunz, Joseph Middletown, George P. Merrill, William F. Willoughby, and Isaac A. Hourwich.

THE HOME OF THE NATIONAL GEOGRAPHIC SOCIETY

THE deed of trust conveying Hubbard Memorial Hall to the National Geographic Society was accepted by the Board of Managers on behalf of the Society at a meeting held in Washington, June 14, 1905. By the terms of the deed the building is to be held by Charles J. Bell, President of the American Security and Trust Company of Washington, D. C., "in trust for the sole use and benefit of the said National Geographic Society so long, and for and during such period of time, as said Society shall continue its corporate existence under its present charter, and shall continue to use and occupy the said land and premises and the improvements thereon for the objects and purposes set forth in its certificate of incorporation."

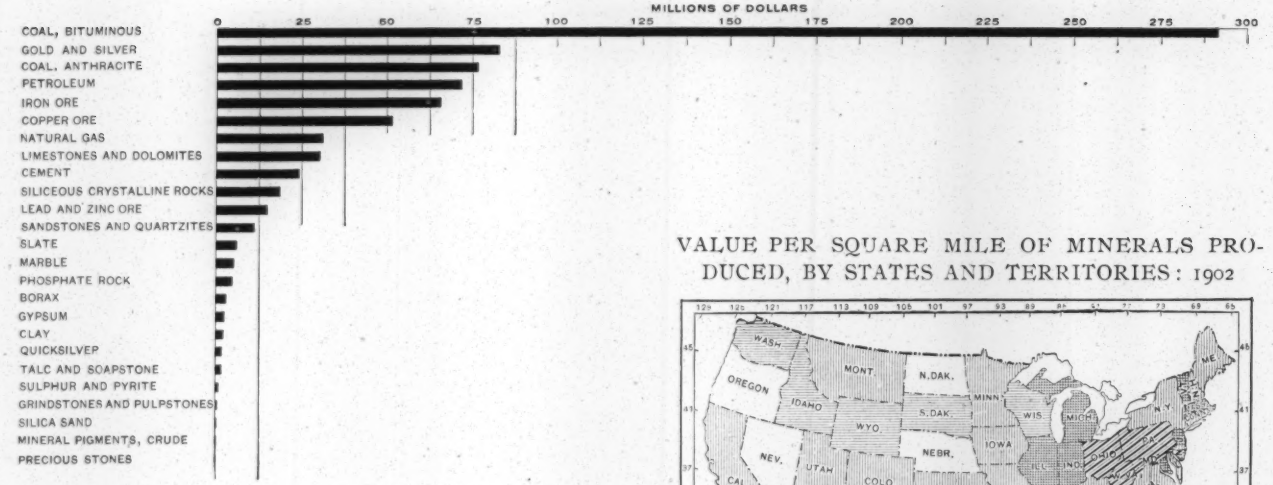
In accepting the gift the Board of Managers unanimously adopted the following resolution:

"*Resolved*, That the National Geographic Society, through its Board of Managers, express to the donors of Hubbard Memorial Hall, Gertrude M. Hubbard (Mrs. Gardiner Greene Hubbard), Alexander Graham Bell, Mabel G. Bell (Mrs. Alexander Graham Bell), Charles J. Bell, Grace Hubbard Bell (Mrs. Charles J. Bell), Helen A. Bell, Grace Hubbard Bell, Gertrude H. Grossmann (Mrs. Peter Stuyvesant Pillot), Elsie Graham Bell Grosvenor (Mrs. Gilbert H. Grosvenor), Marian Graham Bell (Mrs. David G. Fairchild), Gardiner H. Bell, Robert W. Bell, Melville Bell Grosvenor, Gertrude Hubbard Grosvenor, and Rosalie Pillot, its sincere thanks for their handsome gift to the Society. The members of the National Geographic Society appreciate the great interest of the donors in the welfare and work of the Society, and accept this new and generous evidence of their interest with profound gratitude."

THE GEOGRAPHICAL BALANCE

THE withdrawal of Norway from her ninety years' union with Sweden emphasizes in a rather striking manner the momentous shifting in the geographical balance of Europe which has resulted from the Russo-Japanese war. The geographical pivot of the European continent has passed from

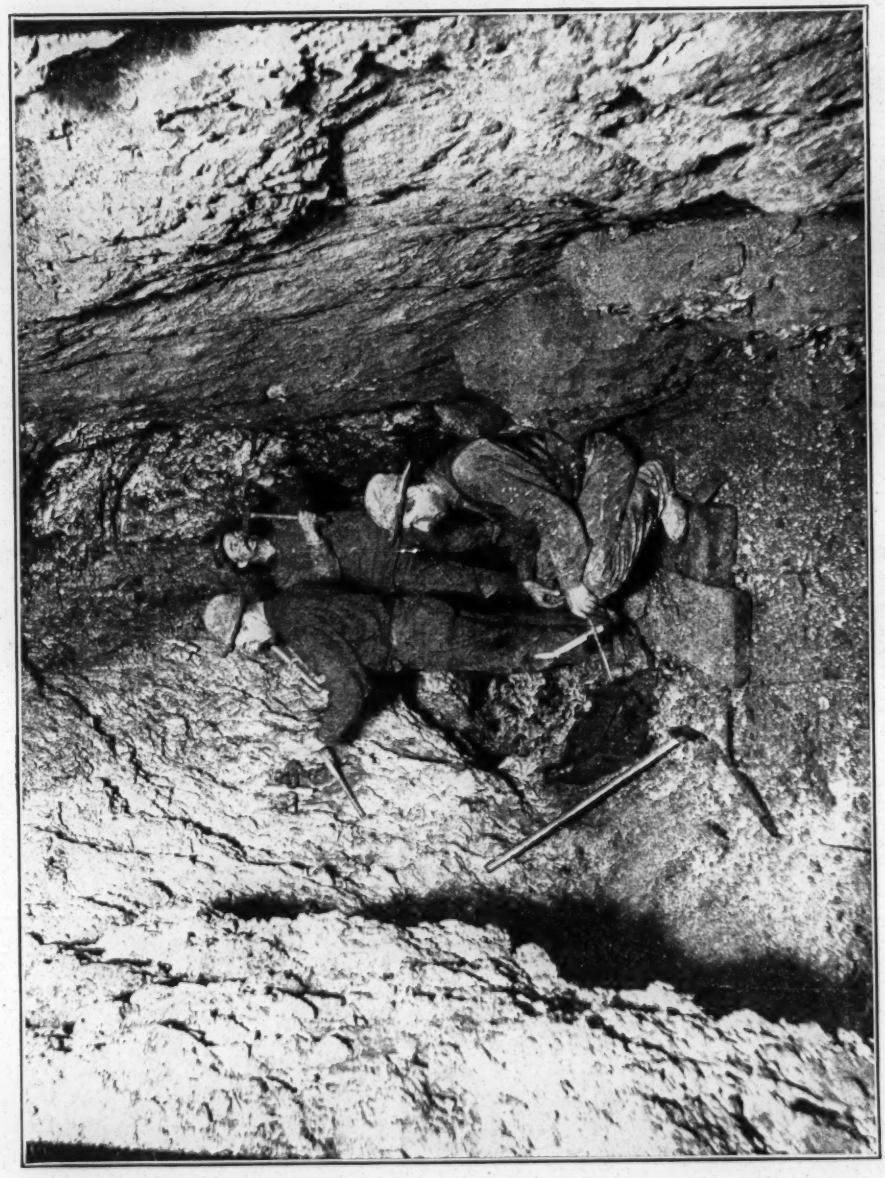
PRODUCTION OF PRINCIPAL MINERALS: 1902



VALUE PER SQUARE MILE OF MINERALS PRODUCED, BY STATES AND TERRITORIES: 1902

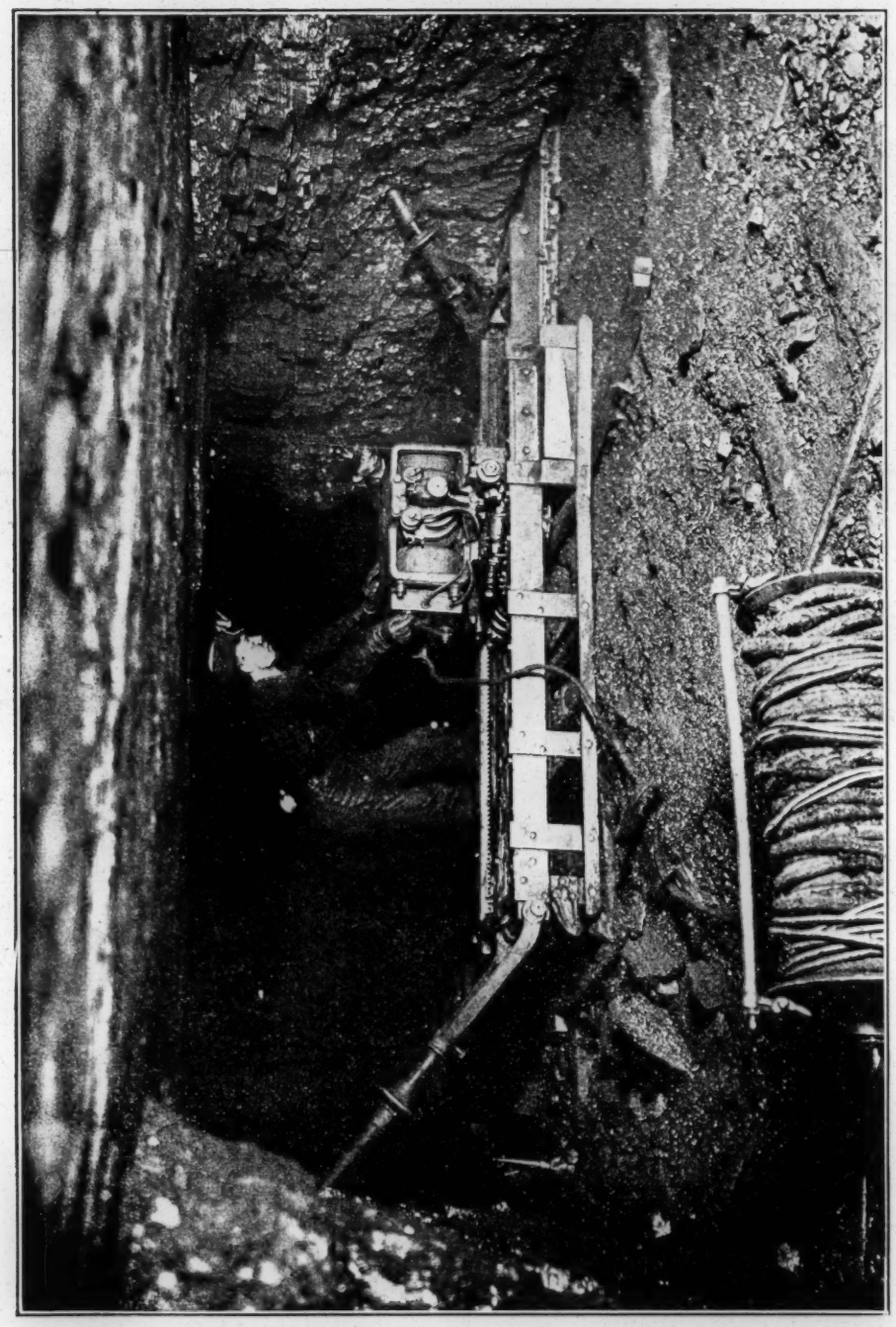
Less than $50
$50 to $100
$100 to $500
$500 to $1000
$1000 and over

From the U. S. Census Office



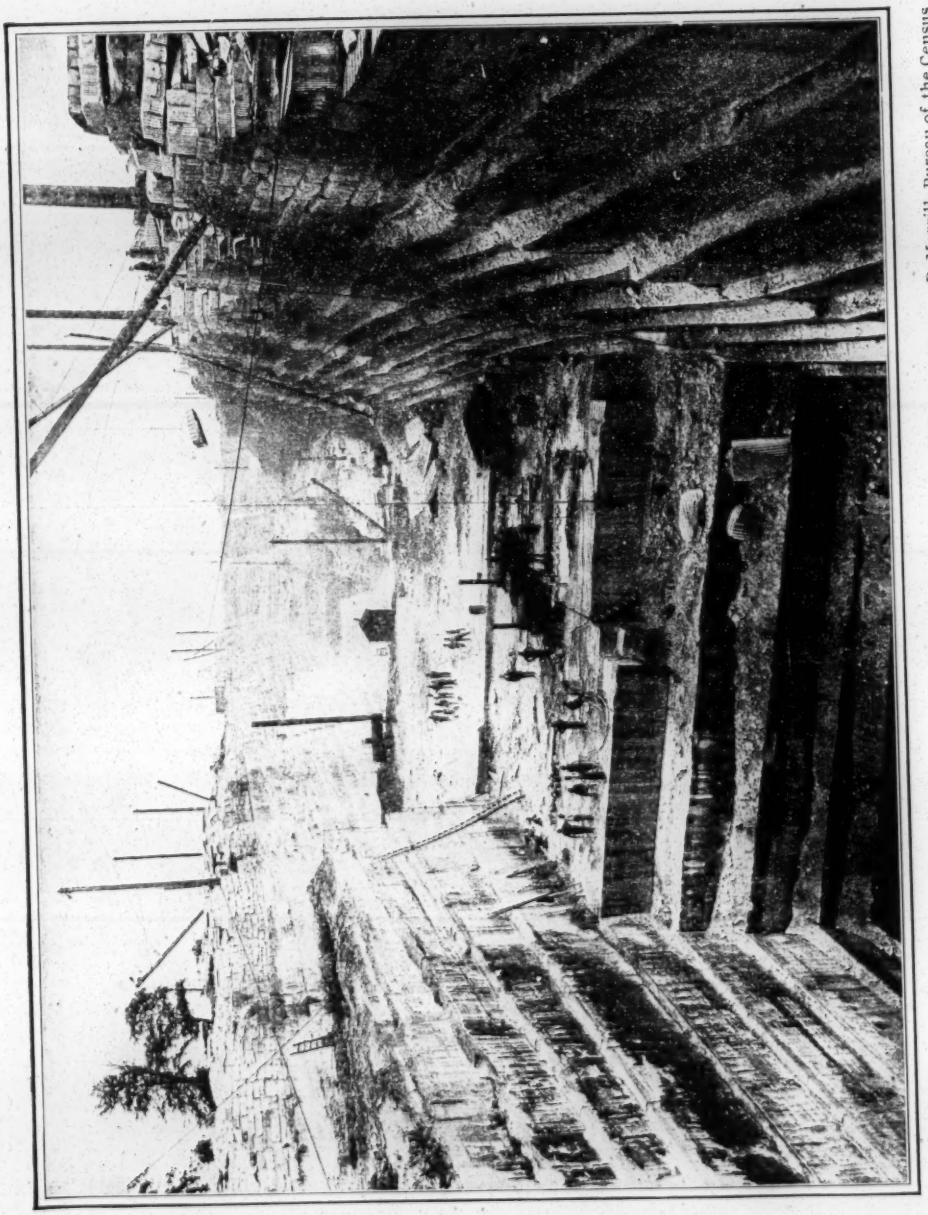
From Isaac A. Hourwich, Bureau of the Census

A Vein in a 1200-foot Level, Daly-Judge Mine, Park City, Utah



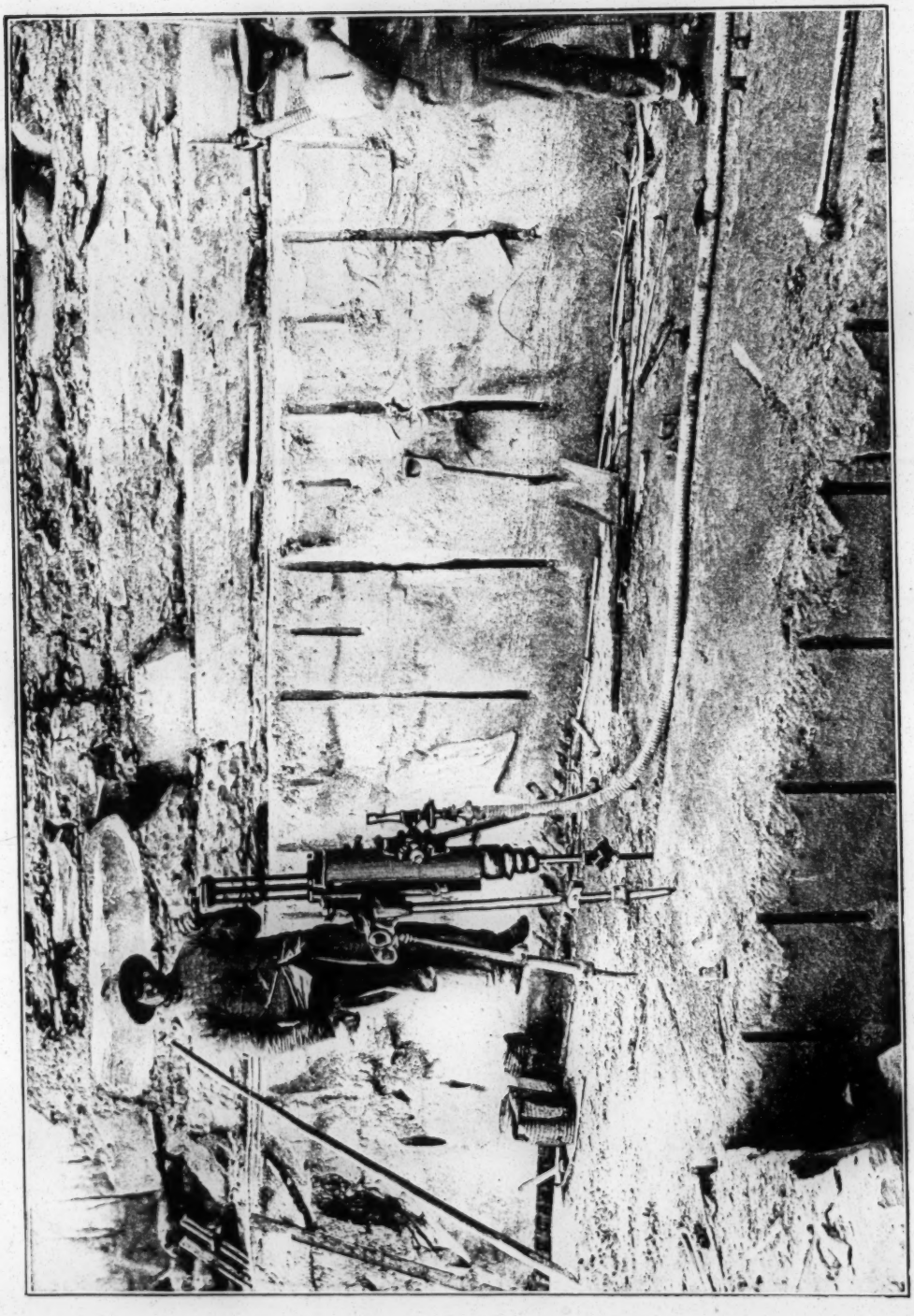
From T. C. Martin, Bureau of the Census

An Electric Coal Cutter



From George P. Merrill, Bureau of the Census

View near Western End of Great Canyon Sandstone Quarry, Amherst, Ohio



Steam Drill Used in Stone Quarrying

From George P. Merrill, Bureau of the Census

From George P. Merrill, Bureau of the Census

Large Granite Column-cutting Lathe at Vinalhaven, Maine

Weight, 135 tons; swings 6 feet 6 inches by 60 feet in length, with 8 cutters. View of first column being turned in lathe

From William F. Willoughby, Bureau of the Census

Porto Rico—Molding Bricks by Hand

Russia to Germany. Russia does not have in European waters a single battleship, and she is almost as helpless as Turkey to prevent Norway and Sweden from doing as they wish. Norway has a population of 2,000,000 and Sweden over 5,000,000.

Meanwhile Germany has been quietly growing. Her population is now 60,000,000; her wealth has increased enormously; while in 1870 her resources were comparatively limited, they are today very large. France has a population today of about 40,000,000, which is a comparatively small advance in 35 years. France is wealthier than in 1870, but her supply of men is about the same, whereas Germany has doubled her supply of men and increased her financial strength many times. Germany needs more ports, almost as much as Russia does. Her 60,000,000 people do not find Hamburg and Bremen and her minor harbors sufficient for her expanding commerce. Little Denmark and little Holland may help her out.

Morocco, according to recent explorations, has an area of useful land equal to the state of California. Many parts of the country are admirably adapted for colonization. The climate in large sections is healthful; there is mineral wealth besides, so that the country offers a promising field for development. Naturally Germany wants a share in its development, particularly as she has good prospects of reaching the Adriatic before many generations.

THE VICTORIA FALLS

OUR honored Speaker of the House of Representatives, Joseph Cannon, was 19 years of age when the Victoria Falls were discovered by Livingstone, 1,000 miles from the British outposts in South Africa. So rapidly has the

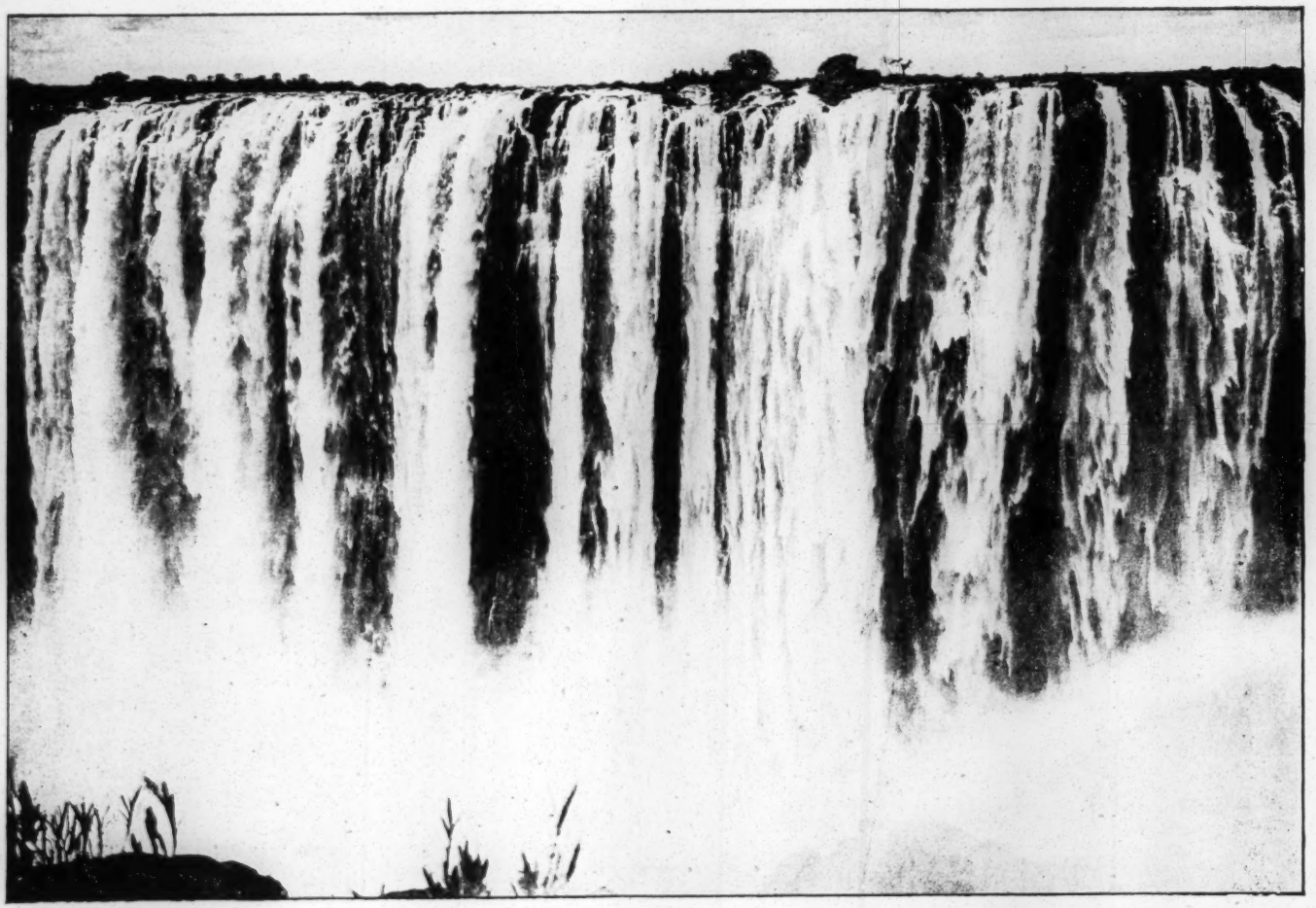


Photo by Pedrotti, Bulawayo (copyright)

The Grand Falls

At high river this is one expanse of falling water, but now separated into numerous cascades in the crevices of the rock. Note the continuance of the river level to the very edge of the falls

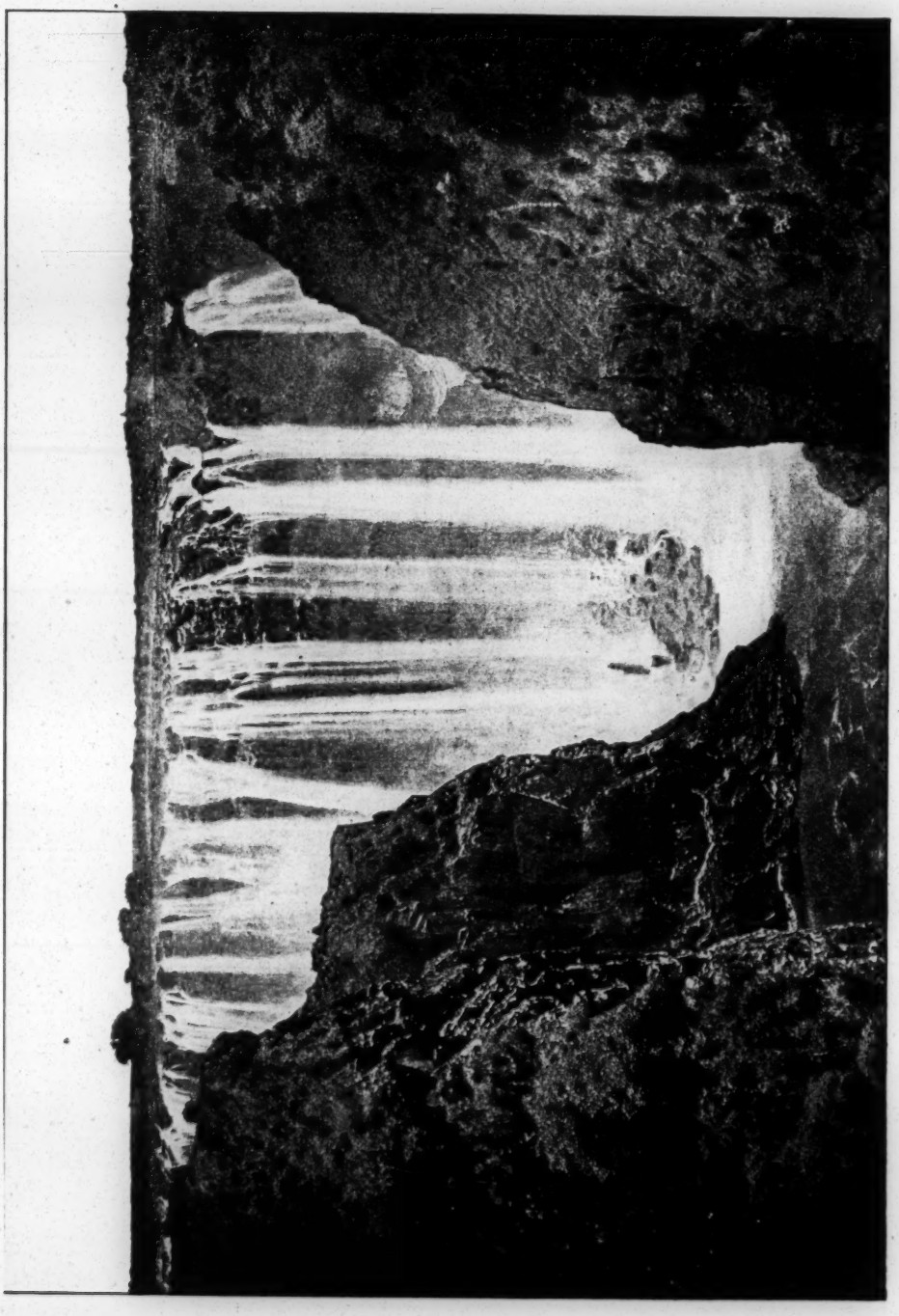


Photo by Pedrotti, Bulawayo (copyright)

View of Falls seen through the Jaws of the Gorge

Danger Point on the left, the promontory of the "knife edge" on the right

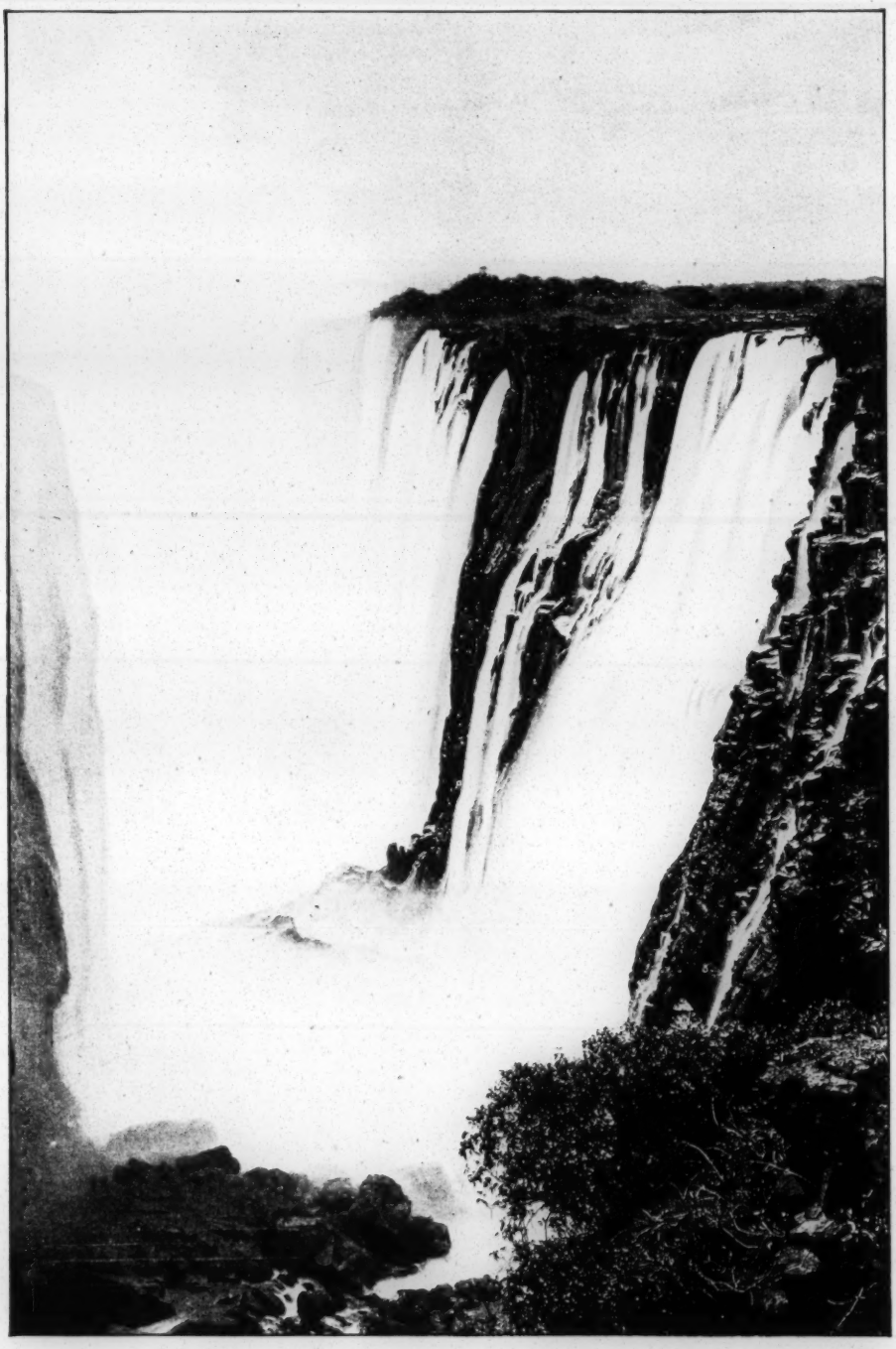


Photo by Pedrotti, Bulawayo (copyright)

View looking into Chasm from its Eastern End

Vertical wall of "knife edge" on the left. Columnar structure of the basalt clearly shown in the rocks on the right. Debris of broken-down blocks at bottom of chasm.

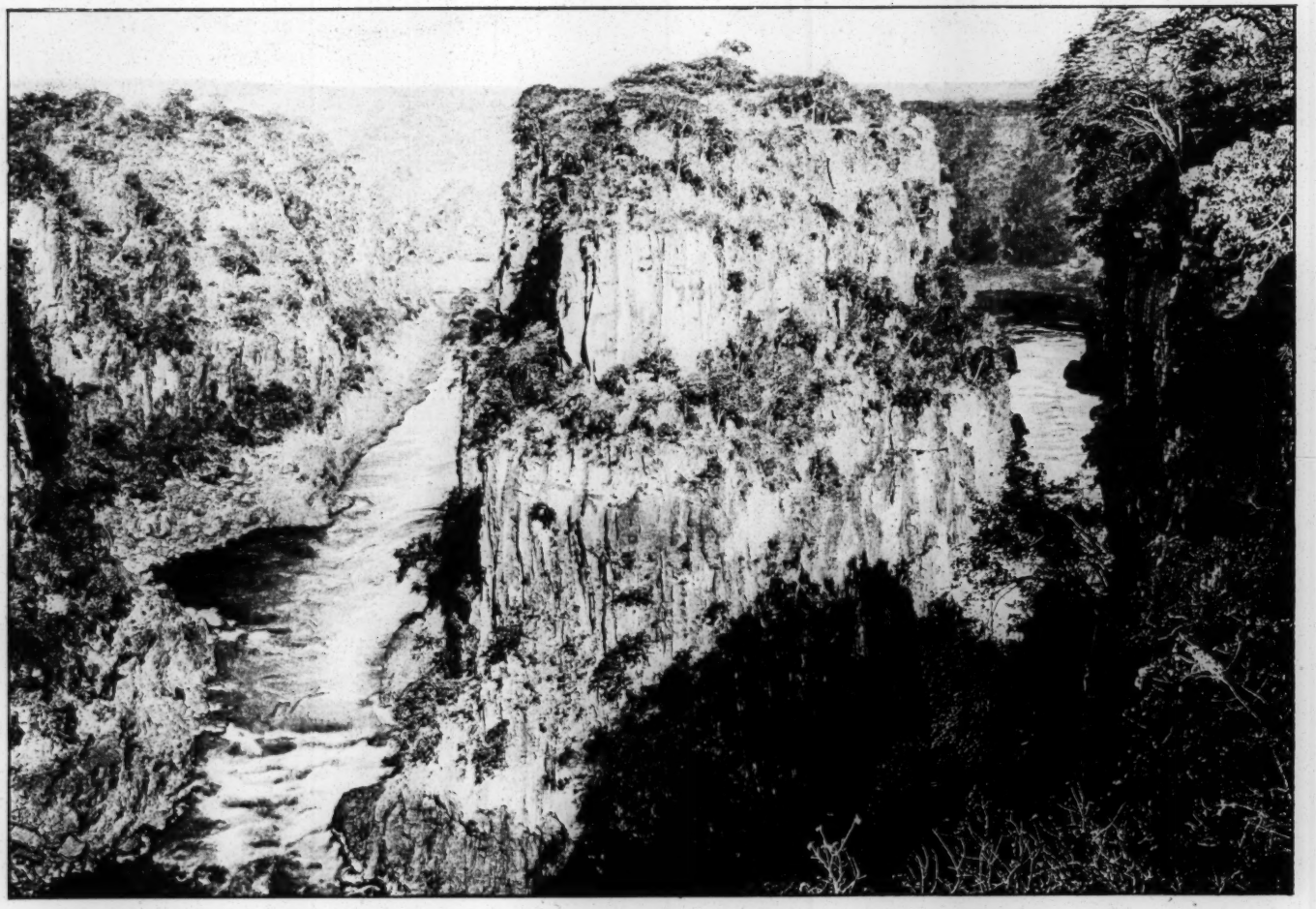


Photo by Pedrotti, Bulawayo (copyright)

View of Bend in Canyon

Taken at time of low water, showing flood mark 40 feet higher. Height above water level, 400 feet. Note columnar cleavage of basalt beds, with trees growing in scoriaceous matter between

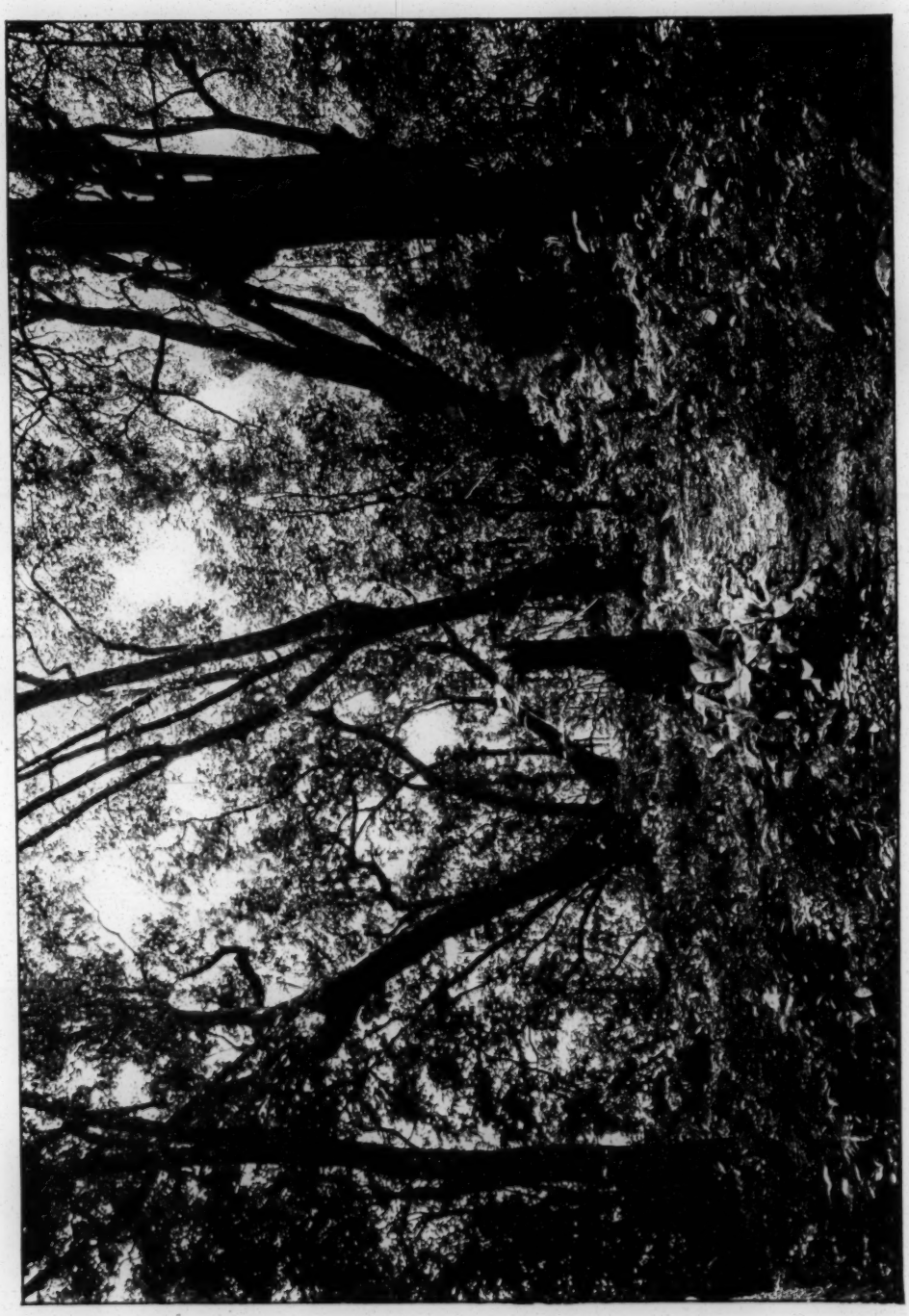


Photo by Pedrotti, Bulawayo (copyright)

The Rich and Evergreen Rain Forest Fed by the Mist from the Falls

man of commerce followed in the track of the explorer, however, that the highest steel bridge in the world is today being built across the falls. The Royal Geographical Society of London, under whose auspices Livingstone was working when he found the falls, has recently published in its journal a description of the falls, and to it this Magazine is indebted for the accompanying illustrations. The Victoria Falls are so distant from great centers of industry that they are not likely to be called upon to furnish power for many centuries. Some years hence, when the waters of Niagara are employed for commerce, and travel across the oceans becomes easier, thousands may journey annually to see the magnificence of the Victoria Falls. The Victoria Falls are not so wide as Niagara, but they are nearly twice as high, their dimensions being 3,000 feet in width and 360 feet in height, as against 4,750 feet in width and 164 feet in height for Niagara. The *Century Magazine* for June, 1905, contains a good account of the falls.

MR WILLIAM ZIEGLER

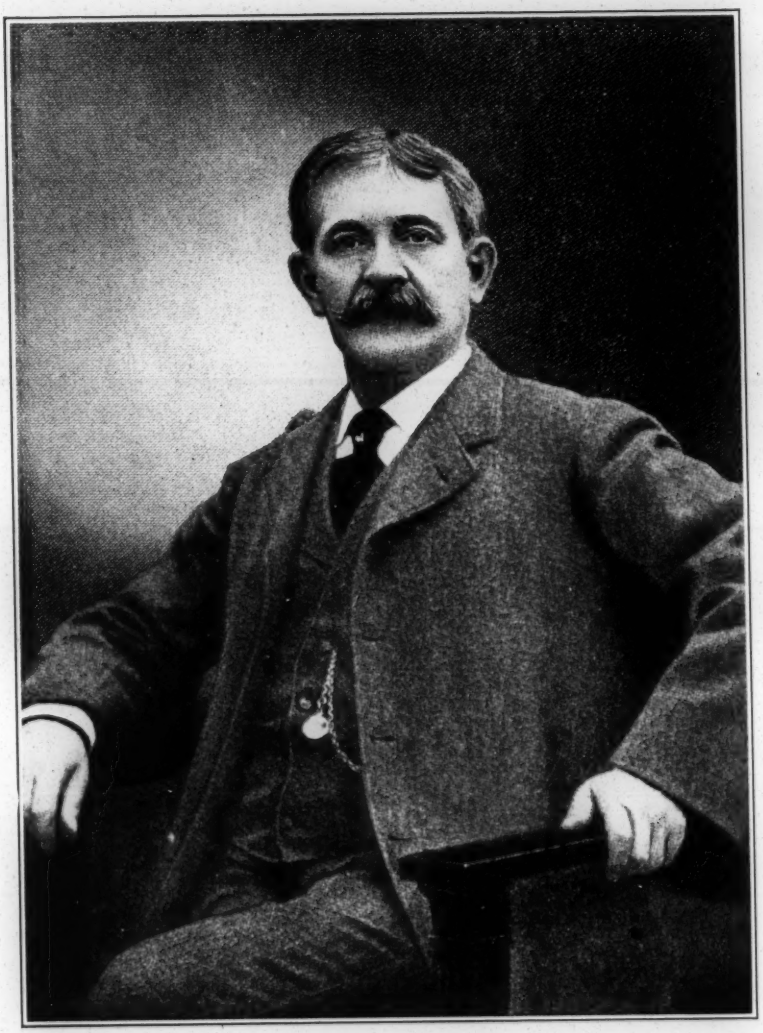
MR William Ziegler, who has so generously supported Arctic explorations during the past five years, died at his summer home, in Connecticut, May 24, 1905. He had been in the best of health until November, 1904, when he was thrown from his carriage and seriously injured.

Mr Ziegler was born in Beaver county, Pennsylvania, in 1843. He began to earn his living at the age of 13 in a printer's office. Later he became a druggist's clerk and much interested in chemical experiments. The story of how he gradually made a fortune in baking powder and real estate is typical of many of our prominent and progressive Americans.

Several years after he had retired from business Mr Ziegler became interested in the search for the North Pole. He had no desire to advertise his name, but was ambitious that the American flag should be the first to be planted at the North Pole. His wealth enabled him to equip expeditions unaided. The first expedition, the Baldwin-Ziegler of 1901–1902, proved very unsuccessful. They brought back some of the finest pictures of Arctic scenes ever taken, and they also secured the first series of moving pictures that were ever taken in the Arctic regions, but Mr Ziegler felt so badly about the failure of the expedition that he refused to give the pictures to the public until he should have something more to announce.

In 1903 he began to make arrangements for a second expedition, known as the Ziegler Polar Expedition, and asked the National Geographic Society to undertake the direction of the scientific work of the expedition. The Society accepted his invitation and appointed Mr W. J. Peters, a member of the Society and one of the best-known explorers of the United States Geological Survey, as its representative. Mr Peters is second in command to Mr Fiala, the leader of the expedition, and has entire charge of the scientific work. It was expected that the party would return in 1904, but the ice was so thick that they were unable to get through. They were abundantly equipped, however, for a prolonged stay in the North Polar regions.

At the time of his death Mr Ziegler had just completed arrangements for the auxiliary expedition which leaves Norway about July 1, under command of Mr W. S. Champ. The Russian government granted the request of the National Geographic Society, forwarded through our State Department, that the expedition be allowed to visit Nova Zembla and there obtain some Siberian dogs. This generous permission of the Russian government will considerably lighten the work of the auxiliary party and give them more time to work through the ice. It is believed that last winter was exceedingly harsh, and that



Mr William Ziegler

the Ziegler parties will need every effort to get through.

Mr Ziegler was a member of the National Geographic Society and was much interested in its work. He was a modest, unassuming gentleman and his untimely death is much to be deplored.

Mr Ziegler left instructions to his executors to take care of his polar expeditions.

THE FOREIGN COMMERCE OF JAPAN

IN spite of the heavy burdens of war, Japan sold to the world and also bought in return more merchandise in 1904 than in any year of her history.

Her imports in 1904 were $184,938,000 in value, as against $157,933,000 in 1903, $143,056,000 in 1900, and $66,311,000 in 1895. Her exports in 1904 also established a new high record, being $158,992,000 in value, as against $144,172,000 last year, $101,806,000 in 1900, and $69,825,000 in 1895. Thus the imports into Japan have increased by $118,627,000 and the exports from Japan by $89,167,000 since 1895.

During the past ten years Japan has imported about $200,000,000 more than she has exported, the excess of the imports over the exports averaging about $20,000,000 annually.

Japan imports most largely from Great Britain, British India, the United States, China, and Germany, these five countries supplying about 77 per cent of her total imports. Of the total imports into Japan in 1904, amounting to $184,938,000, the United Kingdom supplied $37,346,000, or 20.2 per cent; British India (including Straits Settlements), $35,228,000, or 19 per cent; the United States, $28,942,000, or 15.7 per cent; China, $27,295,000, or 14.8 per cent, and Germany, $14,291,000, or 7.7 per cent.

Of the exports from Japan, amounting to $158,992,000 in 1904, the principal countries of destination are the United States, $50,423,000; China, $33,857,000; France, $18,087,000; Hongkong, $14,024,000; Korea, $10,154,000; Great Britain, $8,787,000, and Italy, $6,011,000, these seven countries taking about nine-tenths of the exports from Japan. The United States is by far Japan's best customer, exports to the United States from Japan representing about one-third of her total sales to foreign countries. Among the nations exporting goods to Japan, however, the United States occupies a lower rank, being exceeded by both Great Britain and British India.

The relative progress made by the United States and the United Kingdom in the import trade of Japan is shown by the following table:

Year.	Total imports into Japan.	Imports from the United States.	Imports from the United Kingdom.
1884	$25,786,000	$2,163,000	$11,087,000
1889	48,520,000	4,509,600	19,134,000
1894	58,271,000	5,448,000	20,926,000
1899	109,760,000	19,031,000	22,329,000
1900	143,056,000	31,255,000	35,676,000
1901	127,397,000	21,299,000	25,187,000
1902	135,322,000	24,229,000	25,081 000
1903	157,933,000	23,044,000	24,271,000
1904	184,938,000	28,952,000	37,346,000

NOTE.—Value of yen: 1884, 86.9 cents; 1889, 73.4 cents; 1894, 49 6 cents; 1899 to 1904, 49.8 cents.

The principal articles imported into Japan from the United States in the calendar year 1904 were: Kerosene oil, 5 5 million dollars; flour, 4.6 millions; raw cotton, 4.5 millions; machinery and parts thereof, about 2 millions; iron and steel manufactures, 1.9 millions; leather, 1.7 millions; cotton manufactures, 1.1 millions; wheat and other grains, canned provisions, cars and carriages, leaf tobacco, and coal, the last five items showing figures less than 1 million dollars.

Japan's principal exports to the United States were: Raw silk, 30.4 million dollars; silk manufactures; 6.1 millions; tea, 5.6 millions; mats and matting, 2.3 millions; porcelain and earthen ware, about 1 million dollars, and camphor, straw braids, wood-chip braids, sulphur, tooth brushes, and rice, from $620,000 to about $300,000 each.

The August number of this Magazine will contain an address by the Secretary of War, Hon. William H. Taft, on the Philippines, illustrated with a four-colored map of the Philippine Islands.

A Tribute to American Topographers. In an account of a lecture given by Mr Bailey Willis before the geographers of Venice, Professor Penck, than whom there is no higher authority on topographic maps, pays a high compliment to American topographers:

*"... Above all an opportunity was afforded of obtaining an insight into the really astounding cartographic results achieved by Willis' party in China. The maps which were exhibited gave proof of the very decided superiority of American topographic methods over those employed by most European expeditions. The Willis party carried on plane-table surveys, on a scale of 1:90,000, with 20 to 30 meter contours, from Paitingfu to Taijaufu. This mapping was the work of Sargent, the topographer of the expedition, one of that group of expert cartographers of the United States Geological Survey. In 58½ days Sargent mapped no less than 8,500 square kilometers, occupying 103 stations, locating 2,600 points by intersection, and measuring the altitudes of 2,150 points."

A. H. B.

"The Negritos of Zambales" is the subject of a recent publication of the Ethnological Survey of the Philippines. The pamphlet is very fully illustrated with maps and pictures showing the customs and life of the little brown people.

Although living in the mountainous and wooded portions of the islands, the Negrito grows tobacco, maize, and vegetables. He usually plants in cleared spots in the forest, because the soil is loose and needs no plowing, as in the case of the lowland. All work of digging up the soil, planting, and cultivating is done with sharpened sticks of hard wood, sometimes, but not always, pointed with iron, for iron is scarce. The piece of ground for planting is regarded as the personal property of the head of the family which cleared it. No one else would think of planting on it, even though the owner had abandoned it, unless he declared that he had no more use for it.

Many of the vices of the Negrito, says the report, are due to contact with the Malayan, to whom he is, at least in point of truthfulness, honesty, and temperance, far superior.

While living in the wild state, they have a very simple form of government. They simply gather around the most powerful man, whom they are quick to recognize in this way for superior ability or greater wealth; but when living peaceably scattered through the mountains each head of a family is a small autocrat, and rules his family and those of his sons who elect to remain with him. When he dies the oldest son becomes the head of the family.

* Penck, Prof. Dr Albrecht: The Investigations in China by the Carnegie Institution. Die Zeit, Wien, April 15, 1905.

DECISIONS OF THE U. S. BOARD ON GEOGRAPHIC NAMES

April 5, 1905

CHINESE PROVINCES

Anhui (not Nganhwei, Ngan-hwei, Ngan-hoei, Ngan-hui, Ngan-hwuy, nor Ngan-Hwuy).
Chehkiang (not Cheh-kiang, Chekiang, nor Che-kiang).
Chihli* (not Pechili, Pe-chili, Pe-chi-li, Chih-li, nor Chi-li).
Fuhkien* (not Fukien, Fu-kien, Fuh-kien, nor Foo-kien).
Honan (not Ho-nan).
Hsin chiang (not Eastern Turkestan nor Kashgaria).
Hunan (not Hu-nan nor Hoo-nan).
Hupeh (not Hu-peh nor Hoo-pe).
Kansu (not Kan-su, Kansuh, nor Kan-soo).
Kiangsi (not Kiang-si nor Kiang-se).
Kiangsu (not Kiang-su).

* Revision of previous decision.

Kuangsi (not Kwangsi, Kwang-si, nor Quang-se).
Kuangtung (not Kwangtung, Kwang-tung, Kwantung, Kang-tung, nor Quang-tung).
Kueichou (not Kui-chou, Kweichou, Kwei-chow, nor Quei-chow).
Shangtung (not Shantung nor Shan-tung).
Shansi (not Shan-si nor Shan-se).
Shensi (not Shen-si nor Shen-se).
Ssuch'uan (not Szechuen, Sze-chuen, nor Sze-chuan).
Yünnan (not Yunnan, Yun nan, nor Yun-nan).
Mukden; city, China (not Mookden nor Moukden).

Banka; island, lying between Sumatra and Borneo (not Banca nor Bangka).
Captains; bay, Alaska, between Iliuliuk Bay and Nateekin Bay.
Carquinez;* bay, point, and strait, connecting Suisun and San Pablo Bays, California (not Carquines, Karquines, nor Karquenas).
Chouteau;* county, Montana (not Choteau).
Dona Ana;* county, post-office, railroad station, and precinct, New Mexico (not Donna Ana nor Doña Ana).
Grass; river, tributary to the St Lawrence River, St Lawrence County, New York (not De Grasse, Grasse, nor La Grasse).
Iliuliuk;* harbor, Alaska, an arm of Unalaska Bay, east of Dutch Harbor (not Unalaska, Captains Harbor, nor Levashef).
Le Conte; bay and glacier, east of Mitkof Island, Frederick Sound, southeastern Alaska (not Hutli, Hulti, nor Thunder).
Lewis and Clark;* county, Montana (not Lewis and Clarke).
Little Salmon; stream, tributary to Lake Ontario, near Texas and about 4 miles west of Salmon River, Oswego County, New York (not Salmon).
Port Levashef; port, Alaska, at head of Captains Bay (not Captains Harbor nor St Paul).
Sycamore; creek, tributary to Verde River from the northeast, Yavapai County, Arizona (not Dragoon nor Dragoon Fork).

May 3, 1905

Chefoo; city, China (not Chifu, Chi-fu, Chefoo, Chee foo, nor Tschi-fu).
Liaoyang; city, China (not Liau-yang, Liao-yang, nor Liaoyan).
Tieling; city, China (not Thieling, Tie-ling, nor Tielin).
American Corners; village, post-office, and district, Caroline County, Maryland (not American Corner).
Hinchinbrook; principal entrance to Prince William Sound, southern Alaska (not Meiklejohn).

*Revision of previous decision.

Choga; creek, Macon County, North Carolina (not Chogee).
Hughes; post-office and railroad station, Butler County, Ohio (not Hughs).
Indian; creek, Chowan County, North Carolina (not Dillard nor Dillard Mill).
Marshyhope; branch of the Nanticoke River, Dorchester and Caroline counties, Maryland, and Kent and Sussex counties, Delaware (not Marshy Hope, Marsh Hope, West Branch of Nanticoke River, West or Northwest Fork of Nanticoke, nor Northwest Prong of Nanticoke).
Norris; glacier on the west side of Taku Inlet, southeastern Alaska (not Kadischle, Kadishle, nor Windom).
Salt Lake City; city, capital of Utah (not Salt Lake).
Santeetlah; creek and post-office, Graham County, North Carolina (not Santeetla nor Santutlah).
Shewbird; post-office and mountain, Clay County, North Carolina (not Shoo Bird nor Shoobird).
Shoshone; established for all place names, but not for tribal name or reservation.
Taku; glacier at the head of Taku Inlet, southeastern Alaska (not Klumũ Gutta, Klumma Gutta, nor Foster).

June 7, 1905

Donaldson; creek, Caldwell County, Kentucky (not Dollison, Dollarson, nor Donalson).
Hayden; island in Columbia River, Multnomah County, Oregon (not Shaw's, Shaws, nor Vancouver).
*Horniblow; point, Chowan County, North Carolina (not Hornblower, Horniblow's, nor Skinners).
Kivalina; river, debouching in Corwin Lagoon, on the Arctic coast of Alaska, 60 miles southeast of Point Hope (not Kevulik, Kevuleek, Kuveleek, Kivalena, Kivalinagmiut, Kiveleena, Kivilenya, Kivelow, nor Kiv-a-linyah).
Kobuk; river in northwestern Alaska tributary to Hotham Inlet (not Kowak, Putnam, Kooak, Kubuk, nor Kuvuk).
Poverty; point, Dorchester County, Maryland (not Brockman, Brokman, nor Brohawn).
Roasting Ear; point, Dorchester County, Maryland (not Roasting Gar nor Rose Neck).
Tigari; Eskimo village on Point Hope, Arctic coast of Alaska (not Tikira, Tik-i-ráh, Tik-i-ráh-mũn, Tikirak, Tik-è-rá, Tikera, Tiekagagmiut, Tiekaga, Tigera, Tig-a-ra, Tig-a-rah, nor Figarok).
Whale; island, between Afognak and Kodiak, Alaska (not Tobopymeriũ, Tobopymek, Ketoy, nor Kittiwake).

*Reversal of previous decision

Earthquakes. By Clarence Edward Dutton, Major, U. S. A. Pp. xxiii+314. 8½ x 5¾ inches. New York: G. P. Putman's Sons. 1904.

This volume, by a specialist, gathers up in a technical way the most important results of the new seismology which has developed within the last third of a century chiefly under the leadership of Prof. John Milne, an Englishman who taught science for several years in the Imperial University of Japan. These investigators confine themselves largely to the study of the wave motions in the earth, looking on earthquakes as an effect of geologic forces. Our author treats of the nature and causes of earthquakes, describes the instruments used for recording vibrations, and discusses the views and theories of observers based on this mechanical data. He also points out the chief areas of these disturbances and gives a final chapter on seaquakes. He draws illustrations from the various quarters afforded by these phenomena and makes copious use of pictures and diagrams. There is a short index. The volume is indispensable in its field, as it practically has no rival, but it is not intended for the general reader, though a man of ordinary education can readily get considerable information from it. C. M.

Thomas Hutchins. A Topographical Description of Virginia, Pennsylvania, Maryland, and North Carolina. Reprint of original edition of 1778. Edited by Frederick C. Hicks. Pp. 143, with maps. Cleveland: Burrows Bros. Co. 1904.

This reprint of a rare and valuable book will be welcomed by all students of the formative period of the United States, and the work of the only man who filled the office of civil "geographer of the United States" should be of interest to every student of geography. Mr Hicks supplements the reprint by valuable notes, and contributes an excellent biographical sketch of Hutchins, with a list of his works. He was not merely an American by birth, but in his sympathies and activities, resigning his commission in the British army to serve his country during the Revolutionary War. To Hutchins is probably due the system of land platting used by our General Land Office. He also exercised a potent influence on colonization through his extensive travels, road surveys, and land tracts. During his services as geographer, as one of the commissioners to run the boundary line between Pennsylvania and Virginia, and also between New York and Massachusetts, and in establishing the system of surveying public lands, Hutchins displayed conspicuous scientific ability.

Prof. Hicks says that "his geographical works formed the basis for the famous American geography of Jedidah Morse," and adds that "as a pioneer, soldier, patriot, surveyor, literateur, and scientist, we find him to have been . . . a man who justly is entitled to a place among the great American civilizers." A. W. G.

Geographen Kalendar, 1905-1906. By Hermann Haack. With 16 maps. Pp. 530. 4½ x 6½ inches. Gotha Justus Perthes. 1905. $2.50.

The volume for 1905–1906 of this useful geographical annual contains a summary of geographical progress in 1904 by Professor Paul Langhaus, a review of geographic publications in 1904, a directory of the working geographers of the world, and a series of admirable small maps, including maps showing the route of the English Tibetan expedition, the Baikal railway, Siam, the Signal Corps telegraph lines in Alaska, French explorations in Sahara, and maps picturing the territorial expansion of the United States and Japan. The map of the United States is in error, as it represents Arizona, New Mexico, Oklahoma, and Indian Territory as states. The directory does not contain the names of a considerable number of American geographers, who ought to be included.

WE have published a new edition of our map of Alaska, which was prepared by the United States Geological Survey. The map is 36 by 42 inches, in 3 colors, and is the first contour map of Alaska that has been made. : : : : By mail, 25 cents.

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